The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1891.

The Week.

THE news has come at last that the Administration has recognized the Congressional Junta in Santiago as the legitimate Government of Chili. This ought to be accompanied with the recall of "Pat" Egan, which we are glad to see even the *Tribune* has been obliged to recommend as a necessity. Nothing more discreditable has marked the Blaine episode in our national politics, and yet it seemed, when the appointment was made, as if it was a perfectly safe thing to do—that is, that, after the first Mugwump growls over it, nothing more would be heard of it, and that Egan would get back to the United States at his convenience without any complete exposure either of him or his principal. But somehow Providence seems to keep its finger on Mr. Blaine, and always, or nearly always, touches the explosive button just as the little scheme—whatever it may be—is ripe. Balmaceda's *coup d'état* seemed at first just what was needed to make Egan a success, but it finally proved his ruin at the decisive moment. That story about Balmaceda's having the Congressional army "cut off" and ready to surrender *en masse*, which was believed for two or three days, was doubtless Egan's dream. With that result, he would have been quite happy, and so probably would the "American of Americans," for what would either care about the ruin of a free Government as long as contracts were "fat" and "channels of usefulness" were numerous?

We can recall few situations in our diplomatic history which required more imperatively the presence in a foreign capital of a first-class man as the American Minister, than the quarrel between Balmaceda and the Congress. It was, in the first place, an absolutely novel situation. Two branches of a Republican Government had quarrelled and taken the field against each other with apparently equal chances of success. Neither was legitimate without the other. Balmaceda was no more to us legally than the Legislature. Morally, we were bound to discountenance him as far as we could. The President of a republic who disperses the Legislature and closes the courts by armed force, ought to be presumptively a wrongdoer in the eyes of all other free governments. His possession of the capital was an accident which should, *per se*, have counted for nothing. The Commune held Paris for three months against 300,000 men. The question for us was, pending the issue of the armed struggle, Was Balmaceda, under the Chilian Constitution, a legitimate Government? We ought to have had in Santiago an American of the best type to report to the Administration on all the law and facts of the case, and give opinions on the final outcome which would inform the public judgment here, and, if the opportunity offered, throw his mediating influence there in favor of law and liberty. What we did have was a wandering foreign adventurer, whose residence in the United States had been very brief, whose reputation was very shady, and who had made himself "solid" with the would-be dictator in the old-fashioned business way so well known in Blaine circles. The result was that the *Itata* was seized, and we were brought within a hair's breadth of armed interference in the struggle on the side of arbitrary power. For when she was seized, on the ground that she was carrying arms to be used against a Power with which we were at peace, we did not know what the Power in Chili was with which we were at peace. There was just as much reason for supposing that she was rendering a legal service to a friendly Power as that she was engaging in hostile operations against one. The difficulty of deciding which was right in a domestic quarrel between an Executive and a Legislature would have been ample excuse for not meddling with her at all. But having Egan and new cruisers, in an atmosphere charged with buncombe, we chased, and fumed, and cursed, and vowed vengeance dire, and accumulated, little by little, a huge moral and political and commercial blunder. By all means, let "Pat" now come home. He has done his best and worst, and doubtless has something to the good for himself.

We suspected all along that the English were at the bottom of Minister Egan's troubles in Chili, and now he tells a *Herald* correspondent, "with a trace of bitterness in his voice," that such is the case. "The English," he says, "are naturally antagonistic to me." For the present he leaves this natural antagonism unexplained, but we advise all those interested to make a note of the fact. It may have portentous consequences hereafter. If it shall appear, as it very easily may, that the English hate Egan because he is a "Blaine Irishman," or because he is opposed to free trade, it will be a very perilous thing to disturb him. That "trace of bitterness" in his voice means a warning to those who trifle with the "Irish vote." If the records at Santiago reveal any private agreement between Egan and Balmaceda, as the Congressionalists assert they will, unless tampered with, we shall doubtless see that "trace" become a pronounced and unmistakable "bitterness."

The past week has been full of incidents affecting the conditions of trade and speculation, but for the most part they have been of a favorable kind. The redemption of the 4½ per cent. bonds has not caused the Treasury any difficulty. The holders have been very slow in sending them forward, and there are still $17,000,000 held back for some reason. Probably the owners consider the Government as safe a depository as a bank, and prefer to let their money lie there without interest while they are considering what they shall put it into for permanent investment. The rise in stocks here has stimulated more buying than selling on the other side of the water, and this has accelerated the importation of gold, the movement of which was not expected before the middle of September by those who looked to commercial causes alone. The removal of the German embargo on our pork products is one of the happy auguries of the time, although its importance may be a trifle exaggerated. All the news from the West confirms the previous reports of the excellence of the crops, the rumors of damage by frost in the corn belt having proved unfounded or greatly exaggerated. General trade does not show much improvement as yet, but is in a hopeful way, and railroad earnings are increasing, although the effect of the new crop is scarcely felt as yet.

The President's private secretary, Mr. Halford, sent out over the country last week, through the Associated Press, a carefully prepared statement of the pork negotiations, in which occurs the following: "The conclusion was reached, while the President was at Saratoga, by Gen. John W. Foster, representing the United States Government, and Count von Munn, Chargé d'Affaires, representing the German Government, and was approved by the President. The removal of the pork restriction has nothing to do with any question of reciprocity, but is based upon the acceptance by the German Government of the inspection of imported meats by this Government under the law of the last Congress." The quiet notification that there is no "reciprocity" in this Administration achievement, coupled with the official information that Gen. Foster represented the American Government in the negotiation, no mention whatever being made of Mr. Blaine, would seem to show that Mr. Halford was speaking for somebody who suspected that an effort had been made to give Mr. Blaine credit for something which did not belong to him, but to the President.

The Pennsylvania Democratic Convention has shown itself equal to its opportunity. It has nominated a ticket which is so excellent in character that not a single one of the Republican newspapers of Philadelphia is able to say a word against it, while one of them, the sometimes-independent *Public Ledger*, says of its two candidates that they "are men of marked ability and perfectly clean character, and have been selected, not because either of them sought for or desired the nomination, but because the nomination

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sought them as belonging to the style and type of men that are in the strongest degree needed for the offices named, and which are at this time imperatively demanded by all opponents of the 'spoils' system of State government." This is high praise, coming as it does from a friend of the opposite party; but the *Ledger* is no less hearty in its commendation of the platform which the Convention adopted, saying that the resolutions on the "condition of our State revenue and State treasury laws," and on the "discreditable practices under them in the Auditor-General's and State Treasury Departments, which have scandalized our commonwealth everywhere, and have cost to the State the probable loss of a million and a half of dollars, are levelled straight at the right targets." Furthermore, the *Ledger* says the proceedings of the Democratic as compared with those of the Republican Convention "were much more to the point, much more business-like and direct to the all-important home subjects now engrossing public attention"; calls the Republican resolutions a "miscellaneous jumble in which our vitally important State affairs are subordinated to puffy personal resolutions and far-off matters that are altogether irrelevant to State exigencies"; denounces the Republican resolutions upon the Revenue and Treasury exposures as "half-hearted and halting expressions," and closes by saying:

> "It is indispensably necessary that the 'spoils' system shall be struck by a crushing defeat in Pennsylvania. It is for the voters of the State now to judge—now that the issue is joined as to the deliverances in the resolutions of both Conventions—which party and which nominees are most likely to strike the blow that will defeat and stamp out the system. Is it the organization that shows a disposition to confuse and belittle the vital issues in the State canvass—or is it that opposing party which goes at the important work in the clearest, most direct, earnest, and energetic way?"

The special Legislative Committee which is investigating the affairs of the State Treasury of Pennsylvania is having much difficulty in commanding the presence at its sessions of the most desirable witnesses. No sooner was it known that the Committee was to begin its work than all the ex-Treasurers still in the flesh hastened to leave the State, and many minor officials who had served with them in the Treasury followed their example. One went to Canada, one to Milwaukee, and another, Matt Quay, went to Atlantic City. As all other Treasurers of recent years are dead, the Committee is left practically at a standstill. It is their intention to serve a subpœna upon Quay, and thus give him an opportunity to obey it or to decline to obey it as he sees fit. If the Committee could get him on the stand to give a full account of his Treasury transactions, and then could get Senator Cameron and Mr. Wayne MacVeagh to follow him, we should have at last the whole truth about this most interesting subject. If Quay declines to take the stand, as there is every reason to believe he will, we suggest to the Committee that they begin with Senator Cameron or Mr. MacVeagh. What they should testify would be likely to make Quay leave Atlantic City either for the witness stand or some other point more distant from Pennsylvania.

To celebrate Labor by compelling people to be idle who would prefer to work, is one of the notable victories achieved in recent years by the office-holders in the labor unions coöperating with the office-seekers in politics. If this compulsory idleness on the first Monday of September were limited to those who voluntarily put themselves under the rules of the labor unions, it would not be for others to complain; but a legal holiday has the virtue of imposing idleness upon a large part of the community who are quite outside the jurisdiction of Master Workmen and walking-delegates. The first Monday of September became a legal holiday in this State in 1887, at the time when boycotting was rampant and when Powderly was a great man. That was a time when politicians were most industriously coddling Labor, and when Gov. Hill was urging the necessity of a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. It was a pendant and consequence of this great maxim that the laboring man should have a day of rest of his own added to the fifty-seven that he already enjoyed in common with the other members of the community. There would have been no harm in this except that there is always a loss in the stoppage of machinery and production. It was only the subtraction of one three-hundred-and-eighth part from the preëxisting force, so far as the producers joined in observing Labor Day by discontinuing labor. But in order to give dignity to labor it was necessary to decree that all bills of exchange, bank checks, and promissory notes falling due on Labor Day should be presentable for acceptance or payment on the next following day, and so forth. We have never made concealment of our opinion that Labor Day is in this particular an impertinence and a nuisance, and that the statute which makes it a legal holiday ought to be repealed. There is no more reason for stopping the payment of checks and drafts on Labor Day than on St. Patrick's Day or St. Vitus's Day.

A very destructive criticism of the recent census report upon pauperism appears in the Springfield *Republican*. The most striking feature of this criticism is the fact, which is very plainly brought out, that the Census Bureau could have avoided the worst of its blunders by making use of information that is accessible to every one. Thus, in Massachusetts the Census Bureau reports 4,725 paupers in June, 1890, while the average for the year is given by the State authorities at 5,759, and there is no such falling off in June as to make these figures reconcilable. In that month the United States discovered 1,591 persons who were in receipt of outdoor relief, but the State found that on the 1st of July this number was 14,800. The average number of the poor receiving outdoor relief in midsummer has been for the last ten years about 14,000. Turning to New York, we find that according to the census there were 2,032 outdoor poor in a population of nearly 6,000 000, while the amount expended for their relief was $571,000, which would be five times what the relief of such a number should cost. It is probable, therefore, that the number is nearer 10,000 than 2,000. In Ohio, the census gives only 553 outdoor poor, yet the amount expended for their support is greater than in New York, and would amount to about $1,000 per head. Pennsylvania had, according to the census, only 2,000 poor of this class, but according to the State authorities this number should be 23,000. The estimate of Mr. F. B. Sanborn is that the average number of poor in the United States receiving outdoor aid from the public at any one time is not less than 250,000. If the rate in Massachusetts prevailed elsewhere, this number would be 450,000. The cost of this relief is perhaps $10,000,000 a year, while that of paupers in almshouses and asylums is probably $15,000,000 additional. While pointing out the disgraceful blunders of the census, we will add a complaint that comes from Maryland. The Baltimore *Sun* calls attention to the fact that Census Bulletin No. 104 gives the assessed value of property in Maryland in 1880 at $497,000,000 and in 1890 as $482 000,000, or a decrease of $15,000,000. But the report of the Comptroller of the State shows that the assessed value was not $497,000,000 but $459,000,000 in 1880, so that instead of decreasing $15,000,000 it has increased about $23,000,000. We consider, however, that an error no greater than this must be reckoned as substantial accuracy in the case of the present census

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The excellent gentlemen who made their arguments against Sunday opening before the directors of the World's Fair last Thursday, are probably aware that they spoke for a sentiment and a generation that have passed away. There is no better way of showing this than by comparing the form and manner of their appeals with the methods used fifty years ago. The Illinois Revised Statutes contain Sunday legislation still in force nominally, though no longer really enforced, which mostly dates from about 1845. It provides a fine of $25 for "whoever disturbs the peace and good order of society . . . by any amusement or diversion on Sunday." Lest this might prove too vague and general, another law threatened with a similar fine any one guilty on Sunday of "any noise, rout, or amusement . . . whereby the peace of any private family may be disturbed." Now, why did not the Sabbath Union go to Chicago, point to these laws, and tell the directors that they must conform to them? Simply because those laws, and the sentiment which led to their enactment, and which could alone secure their enforcement, are obsolete. Consequently, the delegates appealed not to the law-abiding principles, but to the religious feelings, of the directors. But if the legal view of the proper observance of Sunday has undergone sweeping changes in the last half century, so has the religious view. There are religious, or at least ecclesiastical, laws on the subject of

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Sunday observance which are just as obsolete as the civil laws relating to the same matter. We observe that two at least of the delegates and speakers were distinguished Presbyterian divines. They are therefore fully cognizant of the fact that the Presbyterian laws governing Sunday observance are not enforced, and cannot be enforced, in the case of great numbers of Presbyterian church-members. Again and again has the General Assembly drawn attention to these church laws and their continued violation by those subject to them; but nothing is ever done about it. The laws remain nominally in force, but, like their civil analogues, are dead letters. A similar state of things exists in other churches. In fact, it is perfectly idle to talk of the dreadful things which will happen if we give up "the Sunday of our fathers." We have given it up already. It sprang from and was supported by a sentiment which, in Church and State alike, has vanished.

The recent achievement of the Canadian Pacific and New York Central Railroads in transporting the Japan mail deserves notice. One of the steamers of the Canadian Pacific Line left Yokohama on the 19th of August and reached Victoria, British Columbia, on the 29th, covering a distance of some 3,900 miles in less than ten days. Upon her arrival after this remarkably quick passage, the officers of the Canadian Pacific Road determined to make corresponding speed on land, and deliver the mail to the *City of New York*, which was to leave this port at five o'clock on the morning of September 2. A special train was at once made up at Vancouver, and made the run to Brockville on the St. Lawrence River, a distance of 2,803 miles, in eighty hours and twenty minutes, or, allowing for the difference in time, in seventy-seven hours and twenty minutes. A delay seems to have taken place here, as it was reported that the Canadian Pacific train was several hours late, which, if true, would have rendered the proposed feat impossible; but, after the New York Central train started, it bravely made up for lost time. The schedule time for the run between Utica and Albany, a distance of ninety-five miles, was 105 minutes, but the run was actually made in 90 minutes, probably the highest speed ever attained in this country for so long a distance. The time between Albany and New York was two hours and forty-one minutes, an average speed of 53.6 miles an hour, and the mail was finally delivered on the steamer only ten minutes after her regular time of sailing. The average speed over the whole length of the Canadian Pacific, including all stops and delays, was 36.3 miles an hour, and the reduction of the regular time between Japan and England was ten days. By the *City of New York* the mail was delivered in Liverpool in twenty days after leaving Yokohama.

The depths of the wisdom of the English common law appear sometimes to the mind of the laity to be unfathomable. Such is probably, at least, the opinion of a lady of Enfield, who supposed herself to be the owner of a jackdaw, but who discovered that her title was only that of precarious possession. She allowed the bird his liberty for a few minutes, and he, true to the nature attributed to him in common parlance, stole away, and was captured and sold in "market overt" to a purchaser who declined, when the bird was found in his possession, to relinquish him. His former possessor called the law to her aid, but the law, through the Enfield magistrates, declared its inability to respond. The law protects persons and property; but the jackdaw was evidently not a person, and it was equally clear, according to the Court, that it was not property. Had the jackdaw been a cat or a dog it would have been different, or had it been, like the parrot, of foreign birth, it might have attained the dignity of a chattel. But, being only a native wild bird, this character flies back to it as soon as it flies from captivity. Although, therefore, the present possessor of the jackdaw has no title to him, yet he has the bird, and there is no way known to the law of dispossessing him. If the former possessor should entice the bird back to herself, she in turn would illustrate the maxim, *beati possidentes*. But unless she succeeds in this undertaking, she will probably repeat for the rest of her days that hasty and irreverent speech of Mr. Bumble, "The Law is a Ass."

One section of the new Mexican tariff, to go into effect on November 1, relates to duties within the so-called Free Zone. The reasons for the establishment and continuance of this anomalous customs territory, about ten miles wide and running along the entire Mexican-American frontier, were fully set forth by Minister Romero, in a communication to Secretary Bayard, early in 1888. It was about that time that Senator Coke and Congressman Lanham complained of the encouragement to smuggling offered by the Free Zone, and took steps to induce our Government to urge its abolition on Mexico. Their charge was, that large quantities of goods imported from Europe were transported in bond to Mexican territory, and then smuggled back over the border to be sold in the United States. The Mexican Minister admitted that a process of the kind might be carried on to some extent, though he forcibly argued that the Mexican Treasury must suffer far more than ours from the contraband trade. He went on to show that the Free Zone was a direct result of the war with this country, as it would have been impossible to support a population on the Mexican side of the new dividing line agreed upon in 1848, unless some way could be devised of equalizing prices for the necessaries of life on the two banks of the Rio Grande. The device adopted has been forced on the Mexican Government at the distinct expense of the customs revenue. The announcement that goods imported into the Free Zone are hereafter to pay 10 per cent. duty, shows the growing strength of the central Government, as well as its desire to make the most of its sources of income.

Republican institutions in Brazil continue to work with a good deal of friction. The Congress has been in session over two months, but has practically done nothing, to the great impatience and disgust of the people. The Opposition lay all the blame on the Government, alleging that it does not furnish the Congress with sufficient information to enable it to legislate properly, and that it is bent on bringing representative government into contempt so as to justify the Administration in encroaching upon the sphere assigned to Congress by the Constitution. They have publicly pointed out and denounced several such acts of encroachment on the part of President Fonseca. Indeed, many vehement speeches against him and his ministers have been made in the Senate. What appears to have angered him most was the statement made by Admiral Custodio de Mello, that Fonseca was at one time disposed to abandon the soldiers at the time of the revolution, and, but for the Admiral's remonstrances, would have done so. The President has a mouthpiece in the Senate in the person of his brother, who made a violent reply to the speeches of Fonseca's enemies. Some of them, he said, were criminals who had found their way into Congress; others were debauchees; some merely buffoons; while still others were irresponsible epileptics and nervous wrecks. This is not exactly conciliatory language, and the bad impression made by it was heightened by the speaker's introduction, on July 22, of an amendment to the Constitution providing for the election of Representatives and Senators alike by the State Legislatures, each State to be entitled to the same number.

Rumors of the inclusion of Spain in the Franco-Russian good understanding have been propagated in Paris, and *Le Matin* has triumphantly given it out that France will soon have a Triple Alliance of her own. Some color has been given the reports by meetings of prominent Spaniards and Russians at Biarritz. The Spanish Premier was summering there, and, when his Minister for Foreign Affairs joined him, there was thought to be something in the wind. Suspicions were greatly heightened when the Russian Minister to France dropped in upon the pair. Still, it might easily have been that here was but a coincidence, had not the subsequent announcement been made that the Grand Duke Vladimir was to pay the Spanish Queen-Regent a ceremonious visit at San Sebastian. When it was further added that her Majesty had ordered the Minister of War to be present at the interview, the gossips were set wild. It is hard to say how much there may be in it, but it seems scarcely possible that anything more is intended than a bit of agreeable flattery to Spain, in the hope of winning her good will. Spanish pride would be stimulated by an invitation to enter the field of European alliances, but her serious financial embarrassment would remain a powerful argument in favor of her previous policy of strict neutrality.

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RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE STANDARD OF VALUE.

THE Republicans are perhaps at present in a little better position than the Democrats as regards the money question. It is true that the Senate, which is Republican, is for free silver coinage, but the Democratic House is also in favor of it, while President Harrison has intimated that he will veto a free-coinage measure if passed. The balance is therefore slightly in favor of the Republicans, especially since the blunder made by the Ohio Democrats in framing their platform—a blunder that was, under the circumstances, almost worse than a crime, for it enables the Republicans to appeal for votes to those who believe in honest money, and will enable them to boast, if they are victorious, that they won on the issue of the McKinley tariff. On the other hand, if the Democrats succeed, it may be disastrous for them in the national contest, for the silver-men will maintain that free coinage has shown itself to be a winning cry in Ohio, and will insist upon its being made a national issue.

The virtue of the Republicans, however, exceeds that of the Democrats in such small degree that any boasting upon their part is at present uncalled for. The entire responsibility for the fluctuations in the value and amount of our money belongs with them. The Democrats have not had full control of the Government at any one time for thirty years. They have sometimes been able to prevent the passage of Republican measures, but they have not been able to carry any of their own against Republican opposition. Thus the entire financial system and policy of the nation is the work of the Republican party. Traditionally, the Democratic party is opposed to national banks and in favor of hard money. It never admitted the doctrine that it was the function of Government to supply money to its citizens, in any other sense than that coinage was a necessary duty of Government; and it is committed by all its principles and most of its precedents against the doctrine that Government has any right, constitutional or otherwise, to compel men who have loaned gold on a contract for its repayment to receive paper promises-to-pay in satisfaction of their loans. This is the doctrine of Republican Congresses, Republican Administrations, and the Republican Supreme Court—at first adopted with an apology, as a yielding to the imperative necessity of national self-preservation, but more recently announced as a prerogative inhering in our Government, and to be exercised at its discretion in peace as well as in war.

Such principles and a corresponding policy necessarily impress themselves upon the thoughts and appear in the habits of the community. The Government comes to be looked upon as the creator of value, and as having unlimited resources for the production of money. The Treasury Department not long since prepared a statement of the amount of money of all kinds in circulation in this country at different times since 1860. We have no intention of endorsing the accuracy of this statement, but it serves to illustrate the situation. In 1860 the money in circulation was $13.85 for each person. On the first of January, 1891, it was $24.10. Since the Government under Republican management has done so much in giving money to the people, is it wonderful that the people should ask it to do more? If it can increase their money from $14 to $24 per caput, why can it not as well make it $50, or even more? There is no answer to this demand from the Republican point of view. The party doctrine, as shown by legislation and judicial decision, is that the amount of money in circulation should be regulated, not by the laws of trade, but by acts of Congress. The extent of the demoralization may be judged from the comment of the New York *Tribune* upon this Treasury statement. "The Democratic party," it says, "after sixteen years' continuous control of the Government, had provided for the people in 1860 a circulation of only *$13.85 for each inhabitant*, whereas the present circulation is $23.57, and it has been about one-half greater during all the period since the war, in proportion to population, than it was at any time when the Democratic party controlled the Government."

The idea of the Democratic party of the *ante-bellum* period being engaged in providing circulation for the people is enough to rouse the statesmen of that era from their graves. The fact that such utterances as these come from what might be supposed to be the mouthpiece of conservative Republicanism, so far as finance is concerned, shows how far the country has drifted from sound principles. Nor is this the worst, for the *Tribune* goes on to take credit to the Republican party for the Silver Act of 1890. Our population, it declares, increases about 1,400,000 yearly, while this act increases the supply of money by $54,000,000, so that the increase in currency is at the rate of more than $38 for every additional inhabitant. No one familiar with finance can doubt that in no long time this act will produce a redundant currency, or that when the excess of notes beyond what is needed for business is presented for payment, payment will be demanded in gold rather than silver. If there are too many greenbacks afloat, they will displace gold and gold certificates.

To say of this measure, as is said by Mr. McKinley, that "it will work out the most beneficial results," is to exhibit the effects of financial debauchery. No trust can be placed in the financial wisdom of a party whose leader says of this act:

> "It will tend to advance silver to its old parity with gold. It has already advanced the value of our vast store of silver in the Treasury. It has given great activity to the production of silver. It has furnished an increase of circulation. It has maintained the gold standard while utilizing and benefiting silver to the utmost extent short of demonetizing gold. It is the key to our exalted, almost preëminent, standing in commercial credit and national honor among the nations of the world. It treats both silver and gold, like all other commodities or productions, as subject to the universal rule of being worth what they will bring in the markets of the world. This is the Republican doctrine now proclaimed in our Ohio platform."

If this is the Republican doctrine in the Ohio platform or elsewhere, the country wants none of it. It is not so frank as the claim for free silver coinage, but it tends in the same direction, and it contains as much mischievous folly and falsehood as can be packed into so many words. It is enough to make credible the *Commercial Bulletin's* report from Washington that the Republicans have agreed upon a measure for the free coinage of all the silver produced in American mines, and that the President will approve such a measure. These wretched attempts to ride two horses can have but one result, which will certainly not be one to boast of. As Major Beatty, a leading Republican of Ohio, who is not running for office, observed: "If the short dollar is a good thing, it would be better to reach it at a bound than to go to it by stages. If bad, the sooner we are confronted by its disastrous effects, the more speedily we shall abandon it and place ourselves upon a solid and sensible business footing." Continuing, Major Beatty said very truly:

> "The platform that Maj. McKinley endorses, and which he endeavors to maintain and uphold, proposes to issue 5,000,000 eighty-cent dollars per month, or 60,000,000 a year. This means 600,000,000 of short dollars in ten years. Therefore, when, in one breath, he prates about paying honest money to soldiers, and in the next advocates the issue of 60,000,000 of eighty-cent dollars per annum, the most he can say truthfully is that he don't propose to give the country quite as many short dollars as some other fellow. But the other fellow may very pertinently reply that if we are to have short dollars at all, the more we can get of them the better, and it strikes me that the other fellow, whoever he may be, would have the best of the argument."

Responsibility for the standard of value is, next to the national defence against invasion, the highest responsibility that can attach to a government. Like the national defence, it rests with the party in power. It will be upon the Republicans this winter and next. They have the Executive and the Senate. If they cannot hold their own members in line, they will be responsible for the defection. If the present law brings us to the silver standard, they will be responsible for the result. Meanwhile, let us hope that both parties will adhere to the tariff issue until it is disposed of. Both have been working upon it four years and saying that they asked nothing but a clear battlefield for it in 1892. It would be vastly strange if both should abandon it for something else just as the field is reached.

UNION PACIFIC AFFAIRS.

THE affairs of the Union Pacific are at present both complicated and interesting. The transfer to the floating-debt syndicate of all the bonds and stocks owned by the Union Pacific Company changes the circumstances of that corporation materially, and raises questions which have not received adequate discussion. The Union Pacific system consists of two main lines of road through Nebraska and Kansas, together with a number of connections or branches built in its interest as feeders of the main lines.

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As evidences of moneys advanced to these branch lines and for the purpose of control, the Union Pacific Railway received from its auxiliary lines, and held until lately in its treasury, a majority of their stocks and a large portion of their bonds. These subsidiary roads differ greatly among themselves as to their earning capacity, some not earning their operating expenses. Notwithstanding this fact, it is beyond dispute that the auxiliary lines, taking them as a whole, furnish such traffic to the main lines as enables the latter to meet all their yearly obligations. The Investigating Committee of 1887 found that about one-third of the gross earnings of the main lines came from traffic interchanged with these auxiliary roads. If we take two-thirds of the gross earnings in 1890, and assume the ratio of net to gross earnings at a little higher than the actual ratio because of diminished volume of business, it will appear that the income of the main lines last year, excluding branch-line interchanged traffic, would have been enough to pay the interest on prior mortgages, though leaving nothing for the Government and other minor creditors. Practically, therefore, the Union Pacific guarantee of branch-line bonds is equitable, for branch-line interest is earned by the carriage of branch-line traffic. An additional mortgage upon the main lines made in favor of the floating-debt holders would only express the actual situation more sharply, though, of course, such a mortgage would give the syndicate an advantage over the other holders of branch-line bonds.

The proposed loan, gathering up the floating indebtedness, is stated to be $20,000,000, while the official valuation put upon the securities turned over is twice that amount. How the amount necessary to be raised was arrived at has not been made public. If rumor has given one or two items in this schedule correctly, the amounts necessary to be had have been understated; nor need we be surprised to find the total requirements considerably larger than the sum stated. On the other hand, the valuations put upon the hypothecated bonds are largely based upon continued guarantee and payment on the part of the Union Pacific. What these securities would be worth if the roads covered were separated from the main lines, is a difficult question. The syndicate can rightly protect itself against all contingencies. We may assume, therefore, that the value of the collateral is none too large for the probable loan.

The transaction appears to be legal. The Thurman Act of 1878, section 9, provides "that all sums due to the United States are hereby declared to be a lien upon all the property, estate, rights, and franchises of every description granted by the United States, and also upon all the estate and property, real, personal, and mixed, assets and income, from whatsoever source derived, subject to any lawfully prior and paramount lien, mortgage, or claim. But this section shall not be construed to prevent said companies from using and disposing of any of their property or assets in the ordinary proper and lawful course of their current business, in good faith and for valuable consideration." Under this language it is difficult to see how the Federal Government can object; the utmost that could be alleged would be bad judgment on the part of this or the former management. A year ago the Senate passed a resolution inquiring into Union Pacific guarantees of auxiliary bonds. The Secretary of the Interior replied in substance that so long as the 25 per cent. of net earnings required by the Thurman act was paid by the Company, it was not the business of the Department to inquire further. But while the Thurman act and the rulings of the Department apparently permit this action of the Union Pacific, the practical effect is to take from that corporation and give to the syndicate the control of the branch roads whose traffic interchanged with the Union Pacific alone makes possible any yearly payments to the United States. The security for the Government debt is impaired by this practical sale of the branch lines, or, rather, it would be more exact to say, in consequence of the accumulation of the large floating debt. And this is true whether the old management of the Union Pacific was wise or not in its use of the borrowed money. No more value can be got out of the Union Pacific system than there is in it, no matter whether the creditor be the United States or any private capitalist. It is, therefore, not easy to see what steps the Government legitimately can take, even granting the impairment of its security.

The debt due to the United States comes to maturity in instalments, the first in November, 1895. All impartial students of this problem are agreed that the Government ought, in its own interest, to make a fair compromise with its debtors, the Pacific roads; and also that the terms of the compromise ought to be arranged without delay, since, for financial adjustments of such magnitude, time is required. A serious problem of adjustment of conflicting interests is likely to arise in any case. Let us suppose for a moment that Farmers' Alliances or private blackmailers defeat any compromise, and that the Government must foreclose. With the outlying parts of the system in other hands, the Government could not recover its sixty millions. On the other hand, the position of the owners of the auxiliary lines would not be easy. The Federal Government, once in possession of the main lines, would be a strong party in any negotiation. The United States could not be bullied like an ordinary creditor. What could the auxiliary roads do, if the Government demanded severe terms in any reorganization? These branch roads without the main lines would be like limbs without a body, while for the owners of these lines to build their own connections to the Missouri River would be almost an impossible task. They might, and doubtless would, try to divide up the feeders among other roads, though the most natural course would be such an arrangement with the Government as would lead to the formation of a new corporation in which all interests could be fairly adjusted. In view of such a possibility, it will be seen that the collateral deposited with the syndicate is not larger than is warranted by the risk. So, whether Congress agrees upon a compromise as to the Union Pacific debt to the United States, or whether foreclosure follows, the practical result is the same: the creditor cannot recover the full amount of his money. It is this fact which is brought into prominence by the hypothecation of all the stocks and bonds of branch and auxiliary lines formerly held by the Union Pacific, in order to keep the system intact.

THE RATE OF PROFIT.

THAT it would be upon many accounts advantageous were the rate at which capital increases in production definitely ascertained, does not admit of doubt. Very many questions that cannot now be answered would be at once and finally disposed of. Many exalted anticipations would be shown to be hopelessly unattainable, and many vague apprehensions would be allayed. If it still appeared that the existing constitution of things worked as much injustice as is represented by some agitators, the way would be opened for the adoption of measures of reform such as common sense could accept; and if it appeared conclusively that the present system results in a reasonable approximation to justice, agitation would soon expire for lack of material whereon to feed. The prodigious difficulty of an investigation intended to determine accurately the rate of profit prevailing in any society has generally deterred economists from undertaking it; but where they have feared to tread, the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics rushes in, and returns with a solution which it offers with confidence to the world. Those who share that confidence may now feel that they know the profit made by Massachusetts manufacturers upon every sale of $100 worth of goods to be on the average $3.90, or $4.83 upon every $100 of capital invested.

Upon this basis; with the aid of previous investigations made by the same Bureau, a series of tables is constructed containing some suggestive comparisons. On an average, the workmen, of both sexes and all ages, employed by individuals and firms engaged in manufactures receive for their wages $362 23 each per annum, while their employers receive for both salaries and profits $517 each. In the case of corporations, the workmen get average wages of $333.22, while the stockholders receive an average return upon their investments of $379. If the employers and stockholders were entirely deprived of their net profits, and these profits were all added to wages, the result would be an average increase of $57.55, or 16.40 per cent. upon the present rate. If net profits and wages were added together and divided equally between workmen and employers, the average amount received would be $349.47. With such a division, the average receipts of workmen would be $1.55 less than they receive under the present system of employment. Even if no allowance were made

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for interest on money invested and borrowed, for depreciation in the value of machinery and plant, for selling expenses, or for bad debts, and all the gross profits were then divided among the workmen, their earnings would be increased by but little more than a half of their present amount.

It is obvious that these results are subversive of the fabric of the socialist vision. The evidence is overwhelming that no government can carry on any productive enterprise at anything like the cost of private individuals. The expense under Government direction is frequently twice what it is under individual management, and we venture to say that, even under the most efficient State control, this expense is generally at least 25 per cent. greater than that incurred in the best-managed private concerns. It follows, therefore, that the attempt on the part of the State to engage in productive undertakings would be followed by speedy disaster. A loss of 5 per cent. upon the present returns would extinguish profit, and a loss of 10 per cent. would mean ruin. If all industries were monopolized by the State, it would very soon become bankrupt, for it would be deprived of its present revenue from taxation, while its expenses would be greater than its receipts. Whatever alleviation might be temporarily obtained by borrowing would be followed by more complete collapse.

While the calculations furnished by this Bureau are well fitted for the refutation of the Socialists, or Nationalists, as they style themselves in Massachusetts, and tend to cover them with confusion, we are unable to attach much value to them for other purposes. We shall briefly point out some of the reasons why we cannot regard them as trustworthy. In the first place, as we understand the report, which is exceedingly confused and repetitious, the figures as to the total number of manufactories in the State, their capital and product, are taken from the census of 1885, while many of the other data are derived from inquiries made during the past year. It is obvious that the changes which have taken place during five or six years may have been sufficient to cause a considerable percentage of error. In the second place, of the whole number of establishments in the State, over 57 per cent., employing about 25 per cent. of the capital supposed to be invested in 1885, made no return at all. In the third place, there is evidence that the returns which were made are not to be depended upon. The considerable industry embraced under the head "Print Works, Dye Works, and Bleacheries," employing a capital of over $16,000,000, reported a net loss amounting to 38.54 per cent. of the selling price of their products, and equivalent to 36.25 per cent. of the capital invested. This incredible return is explained by the Bureau as due to the fact that some of the establishments did not make their statements upon correct principles, and accordingly the Bureau undertakes to "rehabilitate," to use its own expression, this industry. But it is unreasonable to expect that science should accept statistics that have to be "rehabilitated" by the arbitrary act of the bureau that collects them. We cannot tell how many of these establishments made correct returns and how many made incorrect ones, and we therefore cannot tell whether the correction made by the Bureau, if proper in amount, is proper also in degree. Moreover, there are several other industries in which a loss is sustained instead of a profit being earned, and we cannot be sure that some wrong principle may not have been adopted by these manufacturers in making their returns. The same criticism applies to the 762 establishments that report no profits, although they have nearly one-fourth of the capital of those reporting profits.

A more serious criticism relates to the allowance of interest upon quick capital as an item of expense, while no allowance is made for rent proper, or, if we understand the tables, for interest upon capital invested in buildings and machinery. Thus, if an establishment had a building worth $200,000 erected upon land worth $50,000, containing machinery worth $250,000, and had also a cash capital of $500,000, the Bureau would allow 5 per cent. interest upon the latter item as an expense of production, and would allow no interest at all upon the plant. No useful result can be expected from such a method of keeping accounts. If the proper allowance were made for interest upon fixed capital, it would seem that what the Bureau calls "net profits" would be reduced to about 2 per cent. We venture the opinion that a still further reduction must be made, for the Bureau apparently made no attempt to ascertain the losses due to bad debts and other causes, or to determine the expenses incurred in selling the products of manufacture. It was arbitrarily assumed that these items amount to 5 per cent. of the selling price, but we apprehend that very few establishments escape so easily as this. The expense of selling is frequently as great as that of manufacture. We will not attempt to suggest any figure as a proper allowance to be made, on the average, for bad debts and losses and expenses of sale, because we do not consider that anything is to be gained by striking an average where the conditions vary so much in different lines of business. Business men generally, we believe, think it safe to allow considerably more than 5 per cent.

There are some other respects in which this compilation seems to us defective, but we have said enough to show that it affords no solid basis for economic argument. Great labor has evidently been spent upon the tables and calculations, and much expense has doubtless been incurred by the State, but the figures have no more practical value than those of a school-book. The arithmetical problems may be worked out correctly, but the problems of business are not touched. It is unfortunate that the State of Massachusetts should publish documents that can only excite ridicule in the scientific world, but it seems to be supposed by legislators that any one who can add up a column of figures is a competent statistician. A work of the scope of that of which the results are now before us, would task the abilities of the most thoroughly trained economist. To commit it to such incompetent hands as now direct it is to insure its failure in advance.

THE CANADIAN CENSUS.

THE results of the census of the Dominion of Canada have proved disappointing to the inhabitants of that country. During the last decade, population has increased only about 11½ per cent., while during the previous decade the increase was more than 17 per cent. It had been hoped that the adoption of a protective tariff, and the expenditure of vast sums upon public works, would bring about a great increase both of prosperity and population, but these expectations have not been fulfilled. Such expectations, indeed, seldom are fulfilled, except temporarily. The expenditure of the Dominion in 1867 was $13,500,000. It is now about $37,000,000, while the debt has increased during the last twenty years by $150,000,000 and is now about $237,000,000. The growth of population is not promoted by a policy of this kind, which has charged every family, on the average, with a debt of $250 or $300, and with expenses for the support of Government of from $35 to $40 per annum, while it has decreased the purchasing power of wages by levying protective duties. The Canadians had a capital opportunity to profit by the blunders of the United States, but, instead of seizing it, they were persuaded that they ought to copy these blunders, and their present condition is due to their own folly.

But the comments of some of the newspapers published on this side of the Canada line upon the results of this census may afford comfort to those who look upon the failure of mankind to multiply like rabbits as a calamity. The organs of protection of course could not allude to the fact that our own census showed that the rate of increase of our population had fallen off, except in the most gingerly manner, but they have availed themselves of the Canadian census to pour out their suppressed wisdom. One of them informs its readers that the trouble with Canada was that Sir John Macdonald tried to apply our industrial system to a country where every condition was different. This entire difference of condition is explained by the statement that Canada is not a land of many climates, but only one. That is to say, the climate of Labrador is the same as that of Ontario—much of which is south of the northern part of New England and New York—and that of British Columbia is the same as that of Manitoba. In the same article British Columbia is described as "as fair a country as nature could devise," which may be reconciled with the assertion of uniformity of climate in such way as the reader chooses. The rest of the article is devoted to a statement of the diversities in soil and products between the different provinces. Such a diversity is one of the stock argu-

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ments for protection in this country, but the principle does not apply universally. Sir John Macdonald unfortunately had "no conception of the fact that Protection is a policy, not an invariable principle, and that its usefulness depends on a variety of physical and social conditions." The article, it must be admitted, is not very intelligible, but, so far as it has any meaning, it seems to be that protection has checked the increase of population in Canada—a proposition that we have no inclination to dispute.

Another organ declares that decay necessarily awaits Canada unless it is annexed to the United States. It is stated that, "after all its prodigious expenditures to attract population and stimulate trade, it has, in all its broad domains, all told, less population than a single State of the Union extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific." This strange circumstance is thought to prove that symptoms of decrepitude have manifested themselves in Canada "as marked as those which appear in an old and fully developed country." It follows that "real independence and sovereignty and material prosperity" are only to be secured by the Canadians through an incorporation into the United States. Why this change should affect the situation is not explained. Possibly, as the mean temperature of Canada would be raised by being averaged with that of the United States, an improved climate may result which will prevent Canadians from moving South. Of course some relief might be felt if the United States should assume the Canadian debt. But otherwise we do not see how the condition of Canada would be ameliorated unless by throwing down the tariff wall. But if that will be a good thing for all parties when Canada is admitted to the Union, it would be a good thing now; and if all the benefits of annexation can be had by simply removing tariff obstructions, why should Canada be incorporated into the Union? The supply of wisdom available for governing the United States is a little scanty, and if the government of Canada were added to that of our own country, Congress might not be quite equal to the increased burden.

There is nothing to occasion surprise in the movement of population in Canada. The causes that have prevented increase in Maine and New Hampshire and Vermont affect Nova Scotia and Quebec and Ontario. If we look further west, we find a rate of increase in Manitoba and Columbia that would be regarded as enormous were it not compared with the still more rapid increase of North Dakota and Washington. It has been the policy of the Dominion Government to tax the whole country in order to establish great through routes both by rail and water. But it is obvious that the transportation of grain from the region west of Lake Superior through to Liverpool without breaking bulk can have no particular tendency to increase the wealth and population of Nova Scotia, and this is still more true of the transportation of cargoes of tea from Puget Sound to Montreal by rail and thence to England by water. What the people of Canada suffer from is an excess of public in proportion to private works, with all the attendant waste and corruption. But even with a wiser and more economical government, Canada can never contain much more than a fringe of population along its southern border. Climatic considerations are against it. As to annexation, it is enough to say that if Vermont and New Hampshire and Maine and northern New York do not increase in population although they are within the United States, there is no reason why the neighboring regions of Canada should fare differently if annexed. The great crop in all those regions on both sides of the line is men, and men will migrate from places where they are superfluous to those where they are needed.

MR. GLADSTONE AND LORD SALISBURY.

It seems to be generally conceded by the English Tories that the Liberals will come into power at the next general election, which will take place this year or the beginning of next year. This concession is, in fact, so freely made that they have begun to discuss openly what their policy in opposition will be. The hope of Gladstone's death or breakdown, though not wholly abandoned, has lost nearly all its value as a political force. There is every sign that he will hold out at least two years more. Consequently, the contingency of his return to office, with a sufficient majority to pass a Home Rule Bill, has to be discussed as a practical question and provided for somehow.

The situation is for the Tories, from every point of view, very disheartening. Their expectation, after the victory in 1886, was that, even if Gladstone did not disappear from the political arena, the objections to the Home-Rule scheme would grow larger in the minds of the English voters through reflection, and that this hostility to it would be nourished by the effects of Mr. Balfour's "resolute government" in Ireland in promoting material prosperity. The discredit, too, which overtook Parnell, and the shocking dissensions, as they were considered, among the Irish members which followed it, were expected to create disgust and despair about the Irish question generally. The bulk of the Irish voters were expected to cling to Parnell with all his imperfections, and Lord Salisbury advised his supporters to "put their money" on him, that is, to bet that Parnell would carry the day against his colleagues in Parliament with the bulk of the Irish people.

Things, however, have not gone in this way. The trend of English opinion, in so far as indicated by the by-elections, seems to be decidedly in the Gladstonian direction. That is, the voters seem more and more to incline to the opinion that Home Rule is, after all, the only solution of the Irish question. The Balfour policy, whatever it may have done in the way of putting down boycotting, has not sensibly affected the political situation. The Irish voters have abandoned Parnell, showing how little Lord Salisbury understood them, and there is every probability that the Irish party will possess as much strength and be as united in the next Parliament as in this. The statistics of ten years, too, as recently collected and arranged, show that the Balfour policy has had no sensible effect on Irish material prosperity. They show that the stories long current that the political agitation was ruining Ireland, had little foundation. The truth seems to be that Ireland has been prospering steadily for ten years, and in no greater ratio under Balfour than under Morley, and that the alleged close connection between the political agitation and agricultural distress did not exist—or, in other words, that the political agitation had a sentimental as well as a material basis.

What this means is, that there is no likelihood whatever that the Irish question will in the next Parliament have changed its character, for the Irish difficulty, as far as England is concerned, consists, not in anything that takes place in Ireland, but in the presence in the House of Commons of eighty-five members hostile to both English parties, and hostile to the English Crown and Government, and ready at all times, if it suits their purposes, to bring confusion on English legislation. As long as this lasts, the Irish trouble remains, and it is now apparent that Mr. Balfour's policy has not made the smallest contribution to its solution. In fact, there was a certain simplicity in his notion that he was making some progress by the distribution of money in charity in the West, and by promising some sort of local government just as the general election was approaching.

Consequently, the English Conservatives have now to face the question: What shall we do when Gladstone passes another Home-Rule Bill? Lord Salisbury answered this, with his usual indiscretion, by promising to use the House of Lords to defeat it as often as presented, or, in other words, to make the same sort of defence for the Union as the Tories tried to make for the old Constitution against the Reform Bill of 1832. Gladstone was not slow to perceive the advantage which this gave him. The Liberals could hardly enter on the campaign of next year with a better cry than that the Lords were going to resist the popular will, for the Lords are now the very weakest point in the old aristocratic constitution, and a rising against them on a really great occasion might have far more serious consequences than any dissolution of the union with Ireland. Luckily for the Tories, one of the chief Liberal-Unionists, Sir Henry James, here came to the rescue and put a gloss on Lord Salisbury's rash utterance which has made it fairly presentable. What Sir Henry says is, that not only have the by-elections failed clearly to indicate the popular sentiment touching Home Rule, but the general election is likely to fail in the same way, for the reason that in every locality the Irish question will be presented to the voters mixed up inextricably

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with a good many English ones of greater or less importance, so that the result will not be an unmistakable popular verdict on this one issue. Therefore, in order to secure such a verdict it will be the duty of the Lords to throw out the bill, and compel Mr. Gladstone to dissolve and go to the country once more, on Home Rule, and on it only. This is a very different thing, of course, from using the House of Lords as a forlorn hope to fight to the last in defence of "the integrity of the Empire," and perish, if need be, in the ruins. But it is none the less a counsel of despair. Should Mr. Gladstone return to power and pass a Home-Rule Bill by any majority over fifty, there can be little doubt that the resistance of the Lords would make the second popular vote on the measure a tremendous burst of enthusiasm for the "Grand Old Man," of whom, somehow, over half the English people cannot be got to take the "Society" view.

ENGLAND'S COAL SUPPLY.

CARDIFF, Wales, August 26, 1891.

THE speculations of Jevons and others a few years ago concerning the impending exhaustion of the coal supply of the British Isles have been revived by two important papers which were read at the meeting, just closed, of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Cardiff. The first paper was by Mr. T. Foster Brown upon the present coal resources of the kingdom; the second, by Prof. Boyd Dawkins upon the discovery of new coal fields in southeastern England. Naturally, the second of these served as a partial sedative to the alarm created by the first.

According to Mr. Brown's estimates, there remain now but 16,000,000 of tons of coal in the best and thickest seams existing at a moderate depth below the surface. At the rate of the present and prospective production, these seams will be exhausted within the next fifty years, and the industries of England subsequent to that time will be burdened with the tax of a marked increase of expenditure in obtaining fuel. Already the supply of iron ore is running short, and large quantities are imported from Spain. But this can easily be borne by reason of the constantly increasing facilities for the rapid mining of coal.

The prospect of an enforced economy in the use of coal, even though the evil day is put off for half a century, is one which English economists and statesmen do not like to consider. Already, however, they are recognizing the importance of liquidating their public debt while the days of prosperity last, and of preparing for a respectable, if not for a prosperous old age. It is, of course, some consolation to reflect upon the possibility of unknown forces of nature which may come to their relief. Recent reports of the discovery of vast stores of oil in Peru which can easily be transported to England, are hailed with delight, even though there is not much encouragement to look for oil or gas in their own territory. But the prospect of indefinitely lengthening the period of national prosperity through the discovery of new coal-fields in England itself is regarded with the greatest satisfaction.

As long ago as 1826, Buckland and Conybeare recognized the possibility that the belt of coal-fields on the Continent, extending from Düsseldorf on the Rhine through Liége and Charleroi in southern Belgium, into northern France, might continue under the Straits of Dover and reach to the fields of South Wales. Little progress, however, was made towards positive establishment of the fact until five years ago, when Prof. Dawkins persuaded the managers of the Southeastern Railway to begin a boring at Dover for the purpose of testing the theory. In beginning this work the company had before them the discouraging fact that in 1872 another company had sunk a boring at Netherfield, near Battle, in Sussex, with unfavorable results, having penetrated the rocks to a depth of 1,904 feet without reaching carboniferous strata. But the new place further north chosen for experiment was thought to be upon the other side of a fault in the rocks having great extension in an east and west direction, while a boring at Calais, in France, had already proved that on that side of the Channel the coal measures were reached at a depth of about 1,100 feet.

To their great satisfaction, the coal measures were struck in the new boring at Shakspere's Cliff, at a depth of 1,000 feet, and a seam of coal was reached at a depth of 1,140 feet. Five other seams were struck in the next 100 yards, some of them being two and one-half feet thick. In all, ten feet of coal have been penetrated by the boring so far accomplished. The prospect of reaching many other and thicker seams at lower depths is thought to be good, since in Belgium the strata contain a hundred seams of coal, with a total thickness of more than 200 feet. The coal obtained at Dover is also of good quality. Nor is the depth at which the coal is likely to be found any serious objection. Many British coal fields are already worked with profit at a depth of 3,000 feet, while some of the pits in Belgium are 4,000 feet deep. With the rapid improvements now making in the use of compressed air to serve the double purpose of working the machinery and of securing ventilation, still greater depths may doubtless be worked with safety and profit.

The extent of this coal field underlying southeastern England is, of course, as yet unknown. Not unlikely, however, it may prove larger than all the other fields of England put together. A serious hindrance to further exploration exists in the difficulty of securing such rights to the coal that those who are at the expense of the experimental work shall reap a due proportion of the benefit. According to English law, the owner of the surface of the land owns everything down to the centre of the globe, so that a company which should demonstrate the existence of coal over that extensive region would confer an inestimable boon upon the land-owners without reaping any adequate advantage to themselves. Doubtless this difficulty will in due time be removed, and the great question of an extensive and profitable coal field in southeastern England be definitely settled.

But already the prospect is so bright as greatly to reassure the public mind. In glowing phrases Prof. Dawkins concludes:

"It is not improbable that the southeastern coal field will be worked in the immediate future, and that centres of industry similar to Liége and Cardiff will spring up in time in the secluded region of Kent. The iron fields of the Wealden area were largely worked down to the days of Elizabeth, until the fuel necessary for smelting the ore was almost exhausted, and the ironmasters were compelled to transplant their industry elsewhere, and more especially to North Wales. It would be a singular and not impossible revolution of the wheel of time if again the lost industry should be restored to southeastern England through the discovery of the coal measures which lie buried under the North Downs. Whether, however, this happens or not, the discovery of the southeastern coal field will lead to the discovery of other fields which are concealed by the newer rocks in England, and will postpone the evil day when our coal will become exhausted, and when the industries depending upon it will depart to new regions. It is likely to upset all the calculations of the duration of our coal fields which have excited so much attention."

In view, however, of the uncertainty still hanging over the existence of these fields, the more hopeful line of encouragement to the English public would seem to lie in the prospect that the legislators of the United States will continue their policy of promoting high prices in America through protective legislation. If only this policy is continued, the indirect tax upon manufactured articles there will fully keep pace with the increased future cost of English coal, and enable the British manufacturers continually to drive the American out of all foreign markets, and limit him to trade with his own countrymen. The American press scarcely gives the Briton due credit for his sincerity in wishing well to the McKinley tariff. Some industries are temporarily disturbed, but, on the whole, a real advantage is given him in the markets of the world.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

THE PROTECTION OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In quoting the curious phrases of the resolutions as to silver adopted by the Pennsylvania Republicans, you charitably assume that they did not understand the subject; but is it not probable that at least Mr. Quay thought that the resolutions were well adapted to help on the plan he had in view?

Here is a new article to be protected, that was neglected by the McKinley Bill. To be sure, silver has been exported for years, so that under natural and ordinary conditions we control the American market and compete in foreign markets with success, and we produce silver under most favorable circumstances and almost shamefully cheap (and they say we ought not to have cheap things); but, as the law now stands, American silver has no monopoly. Therefore, the quack remedy of protection must be given to it.

"Protection" now definitely means *exclusion*. If competing goods are not excluded, a manufacturer is not "protected." If cheap and good wool comes here from Australia or South America, the Ohio shepherd is not "protected." If excellent cheap woollen goods come in from Germany, the manufacturer in America, with his foreign machinery and foreign-born operatives, using largely foreign wool, is not "protected"; and the German farmer is not "protected" unless a duty is put on American grain and pork high enough to enable him to charge starvation prices to all German consumers. (What a chance for the exchange of two damaging restrictions for two benefits for two great nations!)

If a duty is put on foreign silver, and if smuggling can be prevented, the American silver-miners will have a monopoly. You understand the interest of the silver-miners in the matter, and Mr. Quay no doubt understands it and also its value in politics. The "protected" textile manufacturers who took such an interest in the election of 1888 and in the tariff of 1890 are rather sore over the fall in the prices of their goods that has been the sequence, if not the consequence, of the McKinley Bill, and they are perhaps not very ready to offer their money for the election of '92. Might not the silver-miners put up the

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money needed for the Republican canvass in 1892, if they were promised a stiff tariff duty on foreign silver and the free coinage of all of *their* silver? This plan would enable the President to veto a bill for the general free coinage of silver, and at the same time lose no solid silver votes, and another full-grown American infant with an unbounded appetite might be "protected."

The monstrous tariff duties of the McKinley Bill were not really to the taste of the Republican party, but they were, under the circumstances, useful and even necessary in carrying the election of 1888. In the same way the free coinage of silver, or even of American silver only, is not according to the natural and sound principles of the Republican party, but what else has it to rely upon for its success in '92?

But the people who have been excited by the silver-miners to cry for free coinage of silver may not be pleased to have the new paper money restricted to an amount covered by the American product of silver alone, because they want the tens of thousands of millions of silver of the world to float in, and a tariff duty would keep those millions out. To be sure this deluge would be like the salt water of the ocean; and though it might drown them, it would not serve any good purpose in giving them a new supply of fresh water in the times when they were dry and thirsty, or in helping them to "move the crops." They are neglecting and rejecting the safer and more effective means for these purposes and needs.

Yours truly, ARTHUR T. LYMAN.

BOSTON, August 31, 1891.

CIRCUMLOCUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This time it is Lieut. Foote of Washington who furnishes the argument. Because a lobby of pension agents has organized an army of followers to plunder the Treasury by manipulation of the committees, therefore Lieut. Foote proposes to organize another army of resistants to prevent the Treasury from being plundered. But what chance has his "voluntary and unpaid labor" against those who are working under the direct stimulus of enormous gain? Then, too, it must be remembered that the work has to be done by exactly the same methods. There is no chance for public and manly resistance in open Congress. Intrigue with committees, button-holing of members, log-rolling by personal and party considerations in the laborious accumulation of vote by vote—these are the only means available, whether for attack or defence. The scheme is so hopeless as to do much more credit to Lieut. Foote's loyalty and patriotism than to his sense of proportion of means to ends.

Instead of trying to raise a siege by a regular army, through bands of half-hearted and disorganized guerillas from the outside, why not organize the defence from inside the fortress? I repeat once more—*eheu! quousque tandem?*—that there is in Congress no official defender of the Treasury, nobody to lead the national resistance against the gangs of robbers. There can be but one such defender, and that is the Secretary of the Treasury. If he stood up in Congress, ready at all times, upon demand of party or individual opposition, to set forth to the whole country the situation and prospects of the Treasury, we should begin to find out whether the people or the Grand Army (of what?) is to rule this country. Every man who does not wish to see another pension bill equal to or bigger than the last, ought to throw his influence in behalf of giving to the Cabinet, or at least the Secretary of the Treasury, a seat in Congress. If this reasoning is sound, may it not fairly call for the postponement or subordination of all other political issues? If it is not, I challenge any man in the United States to show its weak point. G. B.

BOSTON, September 5, 1891.

NEWSPAPER PHILOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I not long ago showed, the term *scientist* has been unwarrantably assailed, by the London *Daily News*, as an Americanism. And likewise an Americanism, it asserts, in its issue for to-day, is *reliable*. From its leading article on the late Mr. J. R. Lowell I quote the following passage:

"The tone of mind observable in his Essay on the Condescension of Foreigners, a readiness to believe that people were inclined to patronise America—as, in his youth, perhaps they were—made him rather too fond of setting up for an authority on the English language. He defended such Americanisms as *reliable*, and the plural of *one*, with much spirit and ability. He was, doubtless, often right. Yet there were those who could not help thinking that, if he had not been an American, he would have been less positive, and cared less about such matters."

That *reliable* is not to be ranked among Americanisms the readers of the *Nation* must be well aware; it having again and again been pointed out, in its pages, that the word was used by an Englishman early in the seventeenth century, and that Coleridge used it in 1800, as he often did afterwards. Nor is there any proof of its having been, for the last fifty years, any more a favorite with Americans than with Britons. All along, during that period, few writers, even among the most eminent, have found it objectionable; and this fact is its sufficient defence. Still, if Mr. Lowell "defended" it, where did he do so? Far from approving the expression, he has written, in the course of eulogizing Mr. Emerson:

"For choice and pith of language, he belongs to a better age than ours, and might rub shoulders with Fuller and Browne, though he does use that abominable word *reliable*." *My Study Windows* (London ed. of 1871), p. 276.

With respect to "the plural of *one*," as classifiable with Americanisms, the writer in the *Daily News* leaves his meaning altogether in the air. The vagaries of the ignorant, in point of language, whether on one side of the Atlantic or on the other, are beyond all count. We may be sure, however, that nothing of the sort had a professed advocate in Mr. Lowell. According to what has been cited, in "trees, large *ones* and small *ones*," there is a departure from normal English. Yet there is not; and "trees, large and small," if, on the score of elegance and terseness, preferable, is only slightly preferable. Again, "these are the *ones* I choose" is a locution just as common in England as in America. And is not "little *ones*" good, for "children"? In what case, then, is "the plural of *one*" at variance with accepted English usage?

Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, August 13, 1891.

'THE BEST BOOKS' AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To the somewhat extended list of typographical errors corrected in your review of Mr. Sonnenschein's 'The Best Books,' permit me to add a few of a rather more serious character, the responsibility for which can hardly be laid at the door of the printer. In several cases it seems as though notes which had been made for one author were transferred bodily to the account of another, in a fashion likely to bewilder one who does not happen to be familiar with the particular branch of literature in question. For instance, on page 750, our genial humorist Mr. Clemens, who has already received full credit in another place for his own books, is also credited with all those of Mr. Bret Harte. I noted several other errors of the same sort which I am not able to refer to at present. There is also a general lack of that accuracy in quoting titles which is all but essential in a work of this kind. On page 749 Mr. Howells's novel figures as 'The Lady of Aroostook,' which is nonsense; and, three titles below, the missing article reappears, oddly enough, in a story by Bret Harte, which is metamorphosed into 'Luck of *the* Roaring Camp.' Of blunders in names there is no end. Balzac's 'César Birotteau' is hardly recognizable as 'César Bittoreau.' Such petty distinctions as that between Matthews and Mathews are completely ignored. To dwell on typographical errors is hardly worth while, however, where there is hardly a page that is free from them. In conclusion, attention should be called to the very common mistake of calling Maarten Maartens's novel, 'The Sin of Joost Avelingh,' a translation from the Dutch, when, as a matter of fact, it was originally written in English.

F. E. REGAL.

OBERLIN COLLEGE LIBRARY, August 29, 1891.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press a 'Life of Thomas Paine,' by Moncure D. Conway; the 'Life and Correspondence of George Mason of Virginia,' edited by Kate Mason Rowland, in two volumes; 'The Renaissance: the Revival of Learning in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries,' by Philip Schaff, D.D.; 'Julius Cæsar, and the Organization of the Roman Empire,' by W. Warde Fowler; 'A History of Greece,' by Evelyn Abbott; 'Sir Philip Sidney, and the Chivalry of England,' by H. R. Fox-Bourne; 'The Industrial and Commercial Supremacy of England,' lectures by the late J. E. Thorold Rogers, edited by his son, Arthur Rogers; 'The English Language and the English Grammar Treated Historically,' by Samuel Ramsey; 'Economic and Industrial Delusions: A Discussion of the Case for Protection,' by Arthur B. and Henry Farquhar; 'The Evolution of Life; or, Causes of Change in Animal Forms,' by Hubbard Winslow Mitchell, M.D.; 'The Merrimack River, and Other Poems,' by Benjamin W. Ball; 'Parnassus by Rail,' poems by Marion M. Miller; and Pierre Charon's 'Treatise on Wisdom,' paraphrased by Myrtilla H. N. Daly.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'The Sabbath in Puritan New England,' by Alice Morse Earl; a Life of the late Prof. Austin Phelps, by his daughter, Mrs. Elizabeth S. P. Ward; 'The Literature of the Old Testament,' by Prof. S. R. Driver, the first volume in the International Theological Library, to be edited by Profs. Charles A. Briggs and S. D. F. Salmond; and a collection of 'Historical Studies,' by Henry Adams.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready a 'Life of James Boswell,' by Percy Fitzgerald, and 'An Utter Failure,' by Mrs. Miriam C. Harris, the author of 'Rutledge.'

Among the September announcements of T. Y. Crowell & Co. we mention Charles Dick-

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ens's Complete Works, in thirty volumes, illustrated; 'A Score of Famous Composers,' by Nathan H. Dole; 'Famous English Statesmen,' by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton; and vol. iv. of Von Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire.'

Duprat & Co., No. 349 Fifth Avenue, announce for early publication 'Four Private Libraries in New York: A Contribution to the History of Bibliophilism in America,' by Henri Pène du Bois, with illustrations of bindings, ex-libris, vignettes, etc., in two styles, on Japan paper (200 copies) and Holland paper (800 copies). The work is the first of a series and will be printed at the De Vinne Press.

A new story by Mrs. Molesworth, 'Red Grange,' and one by Miss Yonge, 'The Constable's Tower; or, The Times of the Magna Charta,' will be issued by Thomas Whittaker.

The 'Autobiography, History, and Personal Reminiscences' of Gen. Benjamin F. Butler is to be published by subscription by A. M. Thayer & Co., Boston.

F. W. Christern sends us the prospectus of a new Map of the German Empire, on a scale of 1:500,000, edited by Dr. C. Vogel and published by Perthes at Gotha. It will be engraved on copper in twenty-seven sheets, and will have an index.

The booklet entitled 'Itinerare auf der Insel Lesbos,' by H. Kiepert and R. Koldewey (New York: Westermann), is avowedly not a complete itinerary of Lesbos. It has been republished from Koldewey's great work on the antiquities of Lesbos, in the hope that future travellers may be incited to use it on their journeys through the island, and do some service to geography by filling in the gaps and correcting the errors of the two maps which accompany it. It is little more than simple road directions from place to place, following notes made by Kiepert in 1841, 1886, and 1888, and by Koldewey in 1885–86 during his long sojourn in the island for the purpose of surveying and measuring the monuments of antiquity that remain to the present day. The map of Lesbos is the best that has appeared up to date, as the name of Kiepert guarantees, and both the map and the itinerary will prove invaluable to all whose duty or leisure calls them to Sappho's lovely isle.

Yachtsmen and all mariners will welcome the first part of the United States Coast Pilot for the Atlantic Coast, just issued by the Coast and Geodetic Survey Office at Washington. It covers the stretch from the St. Croix River to Cape Ann, and has been brought down to 1890.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' for 1891 (H. V. & H. W. Poor) is the twenty-fourth annual issue. It maintains its preëminence and indispensableness, adds considerably to its bulk, and continues its two series of maps, viz., the colored sectional and the individual railroad system. It is needless to add any further description or comment.

Great as is the importance of the railroad, it yields, after all, to the common highway, which is, nevertheless, abominably slighted by those having the most direct interest in its perfection. Two tracts lie on our table which deserve the widest possible circulation in our agricultural and suburban communities. One, called 'Road Improvement,' is a reprint of articles from the *Engineering Magazine;* the other, 'The Gospel of Good Roads,' is a letter to the American farmer by Isaac B. Potter. Mr. Potter is Chairman of the efficient "Committee of Improvements of the Highways" of the League of American Wheelmen, to whom it seems odd that we should owe an agitation for the simplest economic "mending of our ways." Both pamphlets have this in common, that they are illustrated with telling photographic cuts of American sloughs and European firm country roads, and that they can be obtained of Mr. Potter at the Potter Building in this city. They are calculated to work a revolution even among the illiterate.

Schürer's 'History of the Jewish People in the Time of Jesus Christ' was regarded as a high authority when first published, and, in the English translation issued by T. & T. Clark, has long been favorably known to Biblical scholars. A second and revised edition of the work, just brought out in English, in five volumes, by the Scribners, is sure of a cordial reception.

The praise which we bestowed upon Prof. J. K. Hosmer's 'Short History of German Literature' has been justified by the popular favor shown it during the past twelve years. Its use as a text-book in our higher schools has been approved, and the author now puts forth a revised edition (G. P. Putnam's Sons), not attempting to recast the original lectures, but modifying by pruning, by slight insertions, corrections, etc. To repair the omissions unavoidable in a summary view, Prof. Hosmer has added a tabular appendix exhibiting the most eminent literary personages in successive epochs; majuscules and italics serving a hypsometric purpose in indicating to the eye the relative altitudes.

Mr. Griswold has already given us a 'Descriptive List' of novels of American Country Life, and again of American City Life, and of International Novels. The fourth member in this scheme is much more bulky, being a 'Descriptive List of Romantic Novels' (Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold). The compiler's aim is still to append to each title competent judgment by a critical authority, but he has usefully gone further, and admitted samples of demoralizing trash for the sake of the condemnation or ridicule which will warn off the youthful or the adult reader. A special flavor is imparted by unconventional comments on classics like 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'The Vicar of Wakefield,' or 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' We have already expressed our appreciation of the good work which Mr. Griswold is thus doing very laboriously and disinterestedly. He is the friend of the librarian everywhere, and a coadjutor of all who seek to regulate the universal craving for fiction.

It is seldom that a critic's complaint of the want of an index is heeded, by author or publisher (for why should there not be a publisher's conscience in this matter?) Prof. A. Gerber, however, whose 'Great Russian Animal Tales' we noticed with approbation in the *Nation* for July 16, has promptly supplied "all that is wanting," to quote our own words—"an alphabetical index of incidents." It fills eight pages, and is perhaps obtainable in connection with the original, which formed part of the Publications of the American Language Association of America for the current year.

We have received the ninth and tenth yearly reports of the Bern Geographical Society (1888–1889–1890). Among the papers more or less fully reported are several relating to this continent; in fact the ninth *Bericht* opens with a discussion, by Dr. Balmer, of the physico-geographical influences that determine the distribution and movement of population in North America. This is illustrated by numerous tables and diagrams. In the tenth *Bericht* is a narrative of experiences in Canada in 1813–1819 by Lieut. Friedrich von Graffenried, as dictated to his daughter. This officer entered the English service in 1810, joining his brother's regiment of mercenaries commanded by Gen. de Meuron, and being first sent to the Mediterranean. He arrived at Halifax in July, 1813, and at Quebec in the course of another month, and first came under fire—a boy of nineteen—at Plattsburg, but he has little to tell of military operations. He made the expedition to the Red River country in connection with Lord Selkirk's military colonizing schemes, and his details in this chapter have an historic value. Prof. Dr. Tschirch treats of the primeval forest in Java, and his paper is accompanied by the most striking and beautiful photograph of a tropical forest that we remember ever to have seen.

The annual address on the progress of geography, by the President, Sir M. E Grant Duff, opens the July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. It is followed by a valuable paper by Col. Tanner on the Himalayas. Though especially intended to show the progress of the Government survey, it is filled with entertaining facts in regard to the avalanches, glaciers, and passes of the higher mountain regions. The extreme jealousy with which the Tibetans guard their frontier is well illustrated by an incident in his own experience. In closing, he recommends Gilgit as the most interesting region to visit for the grandeur of its scenery as well as for the observation of glaciers and avalanches. The principal paper in the September number of this journal is a description of a voyage on the Benue, the great eastern tributary of the Niger, partly through hitherto unexplored regions. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society, Sir George Goldie, Governor of the Royal Niger Company, referred to the common supposition that the people of the southwestern Sudan are Mohammedans. He said: "This is not so; the vast masses of the population—and I am speaking from information culled from hundreds of sources—are pagan at heart." The ruling races of the kingdoms of Sokotu and Gandu are fanatical Mohammedans, but the great masses of the people are, "in their superstitions and manners, as pagan as before the Fellatahs came."

Sun and Shade for September (N. Y. Photo-Gravure Co.) has a number of plates interesting above the average: Miss Ada Rehan as *Lady Teazle;* a likeness of the artist Gaugengigl and a sample of his work; a fine landscape from nature, etc. A photogravure of Miss Rehan, by the way, in quite another rôle, is to be found in the *Photographic Times* of this city for September 4.

Moriz Heyne's 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' (New York: Westermann) arrives in its third half-volume at the word *Licht.* It has already been overtaken and passed by the new edition of Flügel's German-English (and English-German) Dictionary (same publishers); but the two works are not otherwise properly comparable, Heyne's being intended for Germans primarily, and aiming at copious literary illustration. It is modelled in bulk and general plan upon Webster. The print is larger and clearer than that of Flügel. Each for its own end is a very desirable addition to the stock of reference-books.

In addition to the already announced features of the celebrations in memory of Columbus to be undertaken by the Spanish Government, we may mention the erection of a commemorative monument in Havana, and the construction of a sepulchre in the nave of the cathedral in the same city. Competing plans for both were invited last February, and now the award for the monument has been made to Antonio Susillo, while Arturo Mélida's designs for the sepulchre have been accepted. The two are to cost $100,000 and $50,000 respectively. Santo Domingo naturally takes this new slight to its claims in very bad part.

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—Prof. S. P. Langley, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, has for a period of three or four years been carrying out some experimental researches intimately connected with the subject of mechanical flight. Already they have so far advanced, and the results he has reached are so significant, that he has just communicated to the French Academy a brief statement of his chief conclusions, following it with an elaborate memoir in the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge ('Experiments in Aerodynamics'). He has succeeded in demonstrating that, with motors weighing no more than those already actually constructed, we are at present in command of the force necessary to sustain heavy bodies in the air with very rapid motion—for example, inclined planes more than a thousand times denser than the medium in which they move. His experiments have been conducted with a "whirling-table," having revolving arms each thirty feet long, and kept in motion by a steam engine of ten-horse power. With this he has compared the movements of planes, or systems of planes, and their weights, surface, form, and variable arrangements; the whole being always in a horizontal position and so disposed that it could fall freely. Further than this, he has determined the work necessary to move such planes and systems of planes when they are inclined and have velocities suitable to sustain them by the reaction of the air in all the conditions of free horizontal flight. Also, what seems to bring the possibilities of actual flying nearer a practical realization, he has made a minute examination of the motions of aerostats provided with their own motors. Many of these experiments were very striking, and bodies, although quite free to fall, were made to descend very slowly, as if their weight were effectively diminished a great number of times. The general conclusion is deducible that, whatever may be its weight, the time of fall of a body in air may be indefinitely prolonged by lateral motion. This is a very remarkable result, and shows the account that ought to be taken of the inertia of air in aerial locomotion. Thus it appears that the "art of flying" may be a practical possibility, as it has long been known to be admissible in theory; though, for man, it should rather be called the "art of sliding through the air." Prof. Langley's conclusions have, it is understood, been independently corroborated by Mr. Maxim, the inventor of the machine gun.

—That most interesting of binary systems, Sirius—interesting because of the great brilliancy of the primary and because of the significant research of the eminent German astronomers, Auwers and Peters, on its proper motion, leading to their prediction of a satellite which was actually discovered subsequently by Alvan Clark in 1862—has been the object of repeated observation everywhere for nearly thirty years, but nowhere more faithfully than at the Lick Observatory by Burnham, who lately published a complete list of the observations in the 'Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society.' Sirius gravitates like three suns, but shines like seventy. In recent years the companion of Sirius has proved an increasingly difficult telescopic object on account of its rapid approach to peri-astron, and within the last few months it has passed entirely beyond the reach of the Lick telescope, even the keen eye of Mr. Burnham having failed to detect it last December. For several years the little star will now be invisible, being lost in the effulgence of its primary. This companion revolves about Sirius in a period probably not exceeding fifty-three years, so that after its next reappearance astronomers may accumulate nearly a half century of observation from which to determine its orbit with the utmost precision.

—About a month ago M. Pierre de Lano began in the supplement of the *Figaro* a most wilfully indiscreet series of articles upon the secret history of the Second Empire and of Napoleon III. In almost, or quite, the first of these he told a story about the late Duc de Morny which was inevitably of a nature to displease anybody who cherished the Duke's memory. His son, the present Duke, took the matter up, and M. de Lano is threatened, not with the usual bloodless duel, but with prosecution in the law courts and heavy damages. It is hard to see what a writer of history, according to modern methods, can do in a case like this. Discretion, cuttings, modifications, reserve of facts are out of date, as M. de Broglie has lately discovered to his sorrow. The world wags another way now, and is satisfied with nothing less than all the facts in every case—and rightly, too. In the case in hand, M. de Lano seems in no great danger of being cast in heavy damages, for the life and character of Morny have been for long years so notorious as to be past all danger of further injury. Nevertheless, M. de Lano announces that in the rest of his articles he shall replace the proper names—when he treats of improper persons, we suppose—by *banales initiales* and *noms d'aventure*.

—This affair of M. de Lano recalls an amusing *fantaisie* of Rochefort's, written in the worst days of the Empire. Rochefort, strange to say, just falls short of being one of the greatest of humorists. He set forth at length and with illustrations, in the 'Français de la Décadence,' a method by which historians who were forbidden to use proper names might still go on with their labors. Perhaps M. de Lano has taken a hint from Rochefort, for their methods are the same, viz., to use borrowed names and initials. But Rochefort's illustrations of the method were far more entertaining than anything that M. de Lano seems likely to give us. This, for instance, is the way in which, he says, a writer of history might inoffensively describe the events that led up to the Revolution:

"When X... died, Z... became Regent, and plunged the country once more into the most frightful disorder. It would be difficult to describe the suppers that he and the crafty Madame de P... gave every night. These gentlemen did not think that they were digging a pit under the feet of royalty, and (so to say) setting up the scaffold on which that unhappy sovereign, whose personality we will conceal under the pseudonym of Dambricourt, should one day mount, together with his devoted wife, whom we need only mention under the name of Euphrasie to bring back her memory to every honest heart."

If M. de Lano shall decide to continue his history after this fashion, a pseudonym for the Duc de Morny will not be far to seek. He has only to borrow "de Mora" from his neighbor, Alphonse Daudet.

—Not only the *Temps*, but most of the other Paris newspapers as well, have published the story told in the *Progrès de Nantes* about the Iron Mask without any apparent distrust of its accuracy. An anonymous correspondent of the *Figaro*, who seems to be familiar with the story of the Iron Mask, appears to be the only one to cavil at Capt. Bazeriès's discovery. He complains that the dates are erroneous, the siege and capture of Coni not taking place till 1696, when St. Mars, the keeper of the Iron Mask, had given up the command of Pignerol. According to Junca's journal, he says, the man in the mask was taken from Pignerol to the Île Ste. Marguerite in 1694, and thence to the Bastille in 1698. Junca was King's lieutenant at the Bastille. The correspondent also considers it a suspicious circumstance that Captain Bazeriès has "fait trop bon marché du seul document sérieux qui concerne le légendaire prisonnier": and he ends his letter by the avowal that he believes the famous Iron Mask to be not an adulterine brother of Louis XIV., nor the Duc de Beaufort, nor Fouquet, nor Monmouth, nor Bulonde, but a creature of pure myth, who owes his being first to a Dutch pamphleteer of the year 1745, then to Voltaire, and lastly to Alexandre Dumas.

—In 'Outamaro—Le Peintre des Maisons Vertes' (Paris: Charpentier), M. Edmond de Goncourt does not give us a Japanese novel after the manner of Pierre Loti, as the title might lead one to expect, nor even the history of the famous Eastern artist, but simply a very careful and accurate account of all the known paintings and drawings of Outamaro, the first realistic painter of Japan. This book is the first of a series of works on the general subject of Japanese art in the eighteenth century, in which each separate volume will be devoted to one of the twelve most noteworthy artists of the last century in Japan, from Outamaro, the painter of the fashionable demi-monde, to Seimin, the bronze worker. As M. de Goncourt himself has pointed out, it may seem over-confident in a writer of seventy years to undertake so formidable a task, but, on the other hand, no younger man is so well fitted to speak with authority on the art of the last century in general, and Japanese art in particular, as M. de Goncourt, the author of the well-known books on the 'Art of the XVIII. Century in France,' and the owner of the choicest collection of Japanese objects of art outside of Japan. All the greater pity that so competent a man should write in so dry and unsatisfactory a manner. The book is nothing more nor less than a descriptive catalogue of a number of prints and drawings which are wholly inaccessible to the ordinary reader. Accompanied by the proper illustrations, M. de Goncourt's appreciative and often highly enthusiastic comments would be of value to all lovers of Japanese art, but, standing alone as they do, their sweetness is wasted on the desert air, and nothing remains but the ordinary tedium of reading any guide-book or catalogue far from the inspiring presence of the place and objects on which they are meant to be a running commentary. It is to be hoped that the next volume in the series—that on the painter Haruncbou—will be supplied with some illustrations of his works and a readable account of his life.

—A noteworthy addition to German autobiographical literature is a volume entitled 'Aus Meinem Leben' by the well-known Austrian historian and archivist, Alfred von Arneth. This work was written and privately printed on the occasion of the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the author's official connection with the Austrian State Chancery (*Staatskanzelei*), to which he was appointed by Prince Metternich in 1841; and, although intended merely for private distribution, has awakened so great interest that it will probably be issued soon in the ordinary way and thus made accessible to the general public. It is confined to the first thirty years of Arneth's life (1819–1849), and contains in the earliest chapters the reminiscences of his mother

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rather than his own. This lady was Antonie Adamberger, a famous actress and admirable character, to whose memory a certain patriotic romantic sentiment still attaches as the betrothed of Karl Theodor Körner at the time when this spirited poet and warrior fell at the battle of Gadebusch. A few years before her death, which occurred in 1867, she partly wrote and partly dictated to her granddaughter some of her recollections, giving lively pictures of Viennese social life before and after her retirement from the stage. Arneth has woven these notes and sketches into his narrative, and they form, in many respects, the most charming part of it. His gratitude and attachment to Metternich personally did not prevent him from condemning the arbitrary and oppressive rule of this statesman, and wishing to see a system of government established on a broad and liberal basis of popular representation. He began his political career as a member of the Frankfort Parliament of 1848, and discharged his duties as delegate until the reaction in Austria in February and March, 1849, rendered his further services in this capacity impossible. The volume contains a judicial account of the proceedings of this national assembly, with excellent characterizations of some of the most eminent men who sat in it, and closes with the author's return to Vienna.

CHASE'S DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

A History of Dartmouth College and the Town of Hanover, N. H. By Frederick Chase. Edited by John K. Lord. Vol I. Cambridge, Mass.: John Wilson & Son. 8vo, pp. 682.

THIS is a posthumous work. An ardent friend of the college and an enthusiastic local antiquarian, Mr. Chase had devoted many years to the collection of material, and had this first volume in a forward state of preparation for the press when death overtook him. Mr. Lord has attended to the publication of these pages, and promises the concluding volume at some indefinite future time; the materials for it had been "almost entirely collected" by Mr. Chase. The present volume brings the history down to 1815.

Planned on a generous scale, befitting the mass of matter brought together by Mr. Chase, the history naturally gives earliest attention to the person and history of Eleazar Wheelock, who, to the end of his life and in his will, consistently asserted his right to be known as the "founder and proprietor" of Dartmouth College. Born in Windham, Conn., in 1711, and graduated at Yale in 1733, he entered the ministry, and at once took a prominent place among the "Great Awakening" preachers. On November 9, 1741, he preached in Boston, giving occasion to the following entry in his diary:

"Preached to a very thronged assembly with very great freedom and enlargement. I believe the children of God were very much refreshed. They told me afterward that Mather Byles was never so lashed in his life. This morning Mr. Cooper came to me, in the name of the Hon. Jacob Wendell, Esq., and earnestly desired a copy of my sermon for the Press. Oh that God would make and keep me humble!"

A man of uncommon energy, of a masterful disposition, and of much intellectual power, he yet displayed an amount of guile, at several important junctures, that justifies President Stiles's characterization of him: "He had much of the religious politician in his make. . . . Such a mixture of apparent piety and eminent holiness, together with the love of riches, dominion, and family aggrandizement, is seldom seen. He was certainly as singular a character as that of Ignatius Loyola." He turned to teaching, like many another clergyman of the time, to eke out a meagre salary, and appears at first to have paid little heed to the Mohegan Indians, near his Lebanon home, except as supposing them "the Ten Tribes of the House of Israel." But after his experience with the celebrated Indian, Samson Occom, whom the London Society for the Propagation of the Gospel aided, his plans and ambitions took on a wider scope, and, in 1755, we find him at the head of "More's Indian Charity School," so called after a colonel who endowed it with land having a value of £500. Wheelock next proceeded to use his friendship with Whitefield to secure considerable subscriptions for his school in England and Scotland. Finally, a regular trust was organized in England to administer the funds raised to further Wheelock's projects, at the head of which was the Earl of Dartmouth. Grave irregularities appeared in the former's handling of "Christ's money," as he called it, and his overbearing temper got him into hot water in his parish. Thereupon he began to look about for a new location for his school, which, with its endowment and English backing, was regarded as a desirable acquisition by several of the colonies. We cannot follow him in the rather sinuous course of negotiations which issued, at length, in his acceptance of Gov. Wentworth's offer and his removal to Hanover in 1770.

The charter granted by the Governor, December 13, 1769, was probably the determining motive in Wheelock's mind. He could get it from no other of the colonies. It was a cumbrous document, and, with its distribution of functions among two sets of trustees, was the *fons et origo* of the famous troubles of 1815. Wheelock displayed his customary craftiness in arranging for the terms of the charter. As if it were a casual afterthought, he adds in a postscript to his letter to Gov. Wentworth, August 22, 1769, accompanying a draft of a charter: "If proper to use the word 'College' instead of 'Academy' in the charter, I shall be well pleased with it." There speaks his secret ambition for the new institution, which he dared not broach to the Governor openly. He suggested to Wentworth that he might "Christian the House to be built after your own name," but the Governor modestly declined the offer, and the college was named Dartmouth in order to placate the English trustees of the Indian School, who were opposed to the scheme of the charter and new double organization. However, this design failed, as Lord Dartmouth never gave a penny to the college nor ceased to look upon it with dislike as a sort of self-seeking and underhanded perversion of the work to which his sympathies had been attracted. What's in a name, indeed!

A public notice, dated August 23, 1770, was inserted in the newspapers announcing the establishment of the college at Hanover. The advent of Wheelock's family and students, after the break-up at Lebanon, is thus described in his 'Narrative':

"They had so near finished my house that by advice of principal workmen I sent for my family and students [August 27]; but when they had dug one well of sixty-three feet and another of forty, and found no prospect of water, and I had found it necessary therefore to remove the buildings, I sent to stop my family, and tryed for water in six several places, and found supply for both buildings. I took my house down and removed it about seventy rods. The message I sent to my family proved not seasonable to prevent their setting out, and they arrived with near thirty students. I housed my stuff with my wife and the females of my family in my hut. My sons and students made booths and beds of hemlock-boughs; and in this situation we continued about a month."

The hardship did not seem as great to the students of that day, mostly Indians, as it would to their degenerate successors. At any rate, the college lived and held its first commencement on August 28, 1771. It was a great affair, graced by the presence of the Governor and other dignitaries. The programme of the public exercises has been preserved, and included a "Clyosophic Oration in Latin," and an oration "upon the Virtues" which, the President assures us, drew "tears from a great number of the learned." A negro was received into the college during the first year of its existence—an augury of the liberality to his race which has always distinguished Dartmouth. On the Indians it did not long retain a hold. It was not that, as was the case at Harvard a century before, according to Mr. Lowell, "the first blue-bird of spring whistled them back to the woods"; but, owing to one cause and another, the Canadian Indians withdrew in 1777, as those from the Six Nations had done previously, and the numbers steadily dwindled until, for fifteen years after 1785, there was not one in the college. In the first year of this century, however, there was again a copper-colored freshman, and since then representatives of the class for which Dartmouth was especially founded have frequently studied within its walls, down to Dr. Eastman. This loss of the Indian clientèle was serious only in relation to the estrangement it caused among the English supporters of the college; in other respects those early years were highly prosperous. "As compared with the other colleges, Dartmouth's prosperity in numbers was greater during the decade from 1790 to 1800 than at any period of its existence, before or since. In 1791 Dartmouth graduated to the degree of A.B. 49, Yale 27, Harvard 27, and Princeton 27. The totals for the ten years give Dartmouth 363, Yale 295, Harvard 394, and Princeton 240."

Space forbids our considering the vicissitudes and services of the college during the Revolution. Nor can we enter into matters relating to the history of the town, its first settling, and attitude in the contest over the "New Hampshire Grants." All these matters and many others are treated with great fulness, and on all disputed points it would seem as if Mr. Chase's unequalled material and his evident fair-mindedness must have enabled him to speak the last word. His volume is a mine of curious and valuable information, and will necessarily be the standard work on the subject. It has been furnished with a provisional index.

RAMSAY'S GEOGRAPHY OF ASIA MINOR.

The Historical Geography of Asia Minor. By Prof. W. M. Ramsay. Royal Geographical Society's Supplementary Papers, Vol. IV. London: John Murray.

IN 1880, Exeter College, Oxford, sent Mr. Ramsay to Smyrna on a "Travelling Archæological Studentship." The same college afterwards elected him to its "Research Fellowship." He was thus enabled to reside continuously in Asia Minor for several years, his headquarters being Smyrna. He was further aided in his work by the Asia Minor Exploration Fund, but he and his wife have been much the largest contributors to the expense of his explorations in Asia Minor; and Mr. Ramsay has found it possible to travel and

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study in Asia Minor throughout each summer for the past ten years. He began his work under the guidance of Col. Sir Charles Wilson, the chief of the body of "Military Consuls" sent out by Disraeli after the Berlin Congress, to spy out and make maps of Asia Minor with a view to its annexation by Great Britain. The training thus received was invaluable to him in the independent expeditions which he soon found it necessary to institute.

Ramsay's book has been awaited for a long time by the world, at least by that world of scholars whose studies or leisure leads them to take an interest in Asia Minor and its exploration. Much has been expected of him, for he has had unique advantages, advantages such as no other man, dead or living, has ever had, for giving to the world a unique book on the geography of Asia Minor. He has responded to these expectations in a manner worthy of the most exalted praise. The book before us is no rehash; it contains no matter that scholars could get from the ordinary handbooks and books of travel on Asia Minor. Everything in its nearly 500 pages is new and fresh. The material contributed by Mr. Ramsay himself exceeds by far the contributions of other travellers, but the results of the labors of all recent travellers have been incorporated into the volume, so far, at least, as Mr. Ramsay could agree with the conclusions drawn by the individual observers from the facts before them. Any disagreement with them is stated clearly, cogently, and usually with modesty. He has made himself the great master in his chosen field, and the sifting and weighing process to which he must subject the labors of his co-workers leaves as residue what the world will generally accept as the truth, or the nearest possible approximation to it. We have detected but few instances in which he claims for himself what really belongs to others. But even in his strictures on his co-workers—strictures that are sometimes severe—we believe that the attainment of truth has been his aim, and that he has no intention wantonly to wound or offend. Indeed, he makes a statement expressing his great regret that, in a work which is really an investigation, he is compelled to refer oftener to the errors of his co-workers than to their merits. He is literally exact when he says that he has to correct oftenest precisely those to whom he is most indebted, his corrections being really a tribute.

We have said that everything in the book is new. This is literally true, nor must it be confined merely to the results of field-work in Asia Minor. Mr. Ramsay has actually read the ancient authors, especially the Byzantine writers, with an eye single to the topography and geography of the country, and he avers that 95 per cent. of all the references were found in his own perusal of the original documents. Think of deliberately wading through the 'Acta Sanctorum,' the 'Acta Conciliorum,' and that long list of Byzantine scribblers whose very names are unfamiliar to most of our readers. In fact, every successive page that we read makes us admire more and more both the book and especially the patience, perseverance, and learning of its author. Our praise is not fulsome; yet we fear that many who may attempt to read the book will charge us with having misled them. In truth, the average reader will find the book dry as dust, an unreadable mass of details; but those whose work brings them daily into contact with Asia Minor—a large and growing class—will know full well "that human life is latent in every detail, and that it can be so set forth in a larger picture as to possess the deep interest of real history." The travellers who must follow Mr. Ramsay in the work of exploring Asia Minor will find, if they be but content to travel on the lines and following the principles laid down by him, that a world of labor will be spared to them. Not only so, but the progress in the exploration of Asia Minor will be more rapid in the future than in the past, and the results of travel will be known to scholars sooner than was possible heretofore.

It would be a real joy to travel with this book as guide, helper, and incentive to earnest work in filling up gaps and in exploring regions that Mr. Ramsay has never seen. For it must not be assumed that he has spoken the last word on Asia Minor. The exploration of the country is very far from complete; in point of fact, it has but just begun, and fresh laborers are sorely needed to carry on the good work. Each year that passes by, means a serious loss to the science of antiquity; for the stone monuments of the past, the monuments that are so precious for filling up the gaps of history, or, it may be, for reconstructing the local history and for solving geographical problems, are perishing every day in a variety of ways, whether by that Moslem fanaticism which cannot even bear to look upon symbols carved in stone by the hated infidels, whether through use in the construction of modern houses, or by being broken to pieces in search of the gold which every self-respecting Moslem believes them to contain.

All who are interested in any way in archæology should see to it that no summer pass without chronicling the preservation to science of some at least of these precious inscriptions. The few men who have been trained to this work should not be kept at home in professors' chairs, but should be sent out to Asia Minor every summer, and be thoroughly equipped for efficient archæological field-work of every description. The results of such work cannot but be gratifying in every way. England, France, Germany, and Austria have been busy in the field and have done noble work, each in her own way. America, too, has done something, but should do vastly more, if wealth be a criterion. Our men of wealth, if they only knew it, could bring much credit and honor to their names by sending out each year expeditions for the archæological exploration of Asia Minor, and this honor would come to them from a class that can never be brought to do them honor simply because of their wealth. In most cases, too, such honor would outlast by ages the local fame of mere wealth.

Ramsay believes that archæological evidence proves that the Phrygians emigrated from Europe to Asia, as Greek authorities agree in asserting; that they settled first in the Troad; that their defeat and downfall there served as a slight basis for the 'Iliad,' and that later emigrations forced them to the conquest of the interior, where they remained throughout historical times. His views on the Hittite question differ widely from what we believe we may now call the accepted views, as championed by Perrot, Sayce, Puchstein, and others. He does not believe that the people of Pteria (Boghaz-kieui) should be identified with the Hittites of northern Syria, but that Pteria was *itself* the capital of an empire whose origin was in no wise due to Assyrian or Persian influence. The close relationship of art and hieroglyphic writing that has been observed between the monuments of Asia Minor and northern Syria is, in his view, really no stumbling-block, for even *identity* of art does not prove identity of race, as is clearly shown by the analogy of Seldjuk art, which is purely Arabic in style. And identity of art does not exist between the monuments in question, for the Hittite monuments of Syria are much more developed in style, and, therefore, much later in time, than the monuments of Asia Minor. This Pterian empire began to decay about 900 B. C., and was divided among the more lusty peoples of the border lands. The Phrygians of the Troad fell heir to the western portion of the Pterian empire, while in the portion south of the Taurus was founded the Hittite empire; but even after these dismemberments Pteria itself continued for a long time to be the emporium of Cappadocia, until finally it had to succumb to cities on the line of international intercourse. How much of Ramsay's theory will be accepted by scholars remains to be seen. It is ingenious and interesting, and it corresponds well with the views of Puchstein ('Reisen in Kleinasien'), who claims, on purely archæological evidence, that the Hittite empire flourished between the tenth and sixth centuries B. C.

Ramsay assigns far less value to the Peutinger Table, Ptolemy, and the Itineraries as geographical authorities in comparison with Strabo and the Byzantine lists of Bishops than modern geographers usually do. His plan of work was to fix as many sites as possible from epigraphic evidence, working thereafter from the Byzantine lists and Strabo. Then the Table and Ptolemy were used as corroborative evidence and to supply gaps. The Table can never be followed without external confirmation, but Ptolemy's value is a variable quantity; sometimes he is accurate, sometimes wholly at sea, just according to the value of the authority on which he based his statements.

Mr. Ramsay has not aroused in us that vigorous criticism which he so much desired; not that we have no criticisms to make, not that we agree with him in everything, but in view of the great merit of the work, we feel that we can leave our little criticisms unspoken, our little grievances unavenged. We think, however, that he should not have published the book for a year; he began printing before he was ready for the press, and to this fact are no doubt due the numerous addenda at the beginning and the end of the book, though we are aware that it is very difficult to get ready for the press when new facts are coming in every day. To this may be due also some of the numerous inconsistencies of spelling, though we believe that the principle on which he spells Turkish names is bad. We contend that all Turkish sounds cannot be given by the English alphabet, and that one must take refuge in the German ö and ü, whose values are known to those who will use the book. For instance, both Ramsay and Perrot write *Eyuk*. Now, a spelling that is correct in French is usually not correct in English. But in this special case the spelling is wrong both in French and in English, for the correct pronunciation can only be given by Öyük. Again, Ramsay spells both *Hisar* and *Hissar*, though he prefers *Hisar*, which is utterly wrong.

In conclusion we are glad to announce that Mr. Ramsay proposes to give us an *Annual* on the progress of discovery in Asia Minor, and we hope that he may be able to present to the world before many years his Local History of Asia Minor and to follow it up with a History of the Byzantine and Turkish Campaigns.

THE HISTORY OF LANGUAGE.

Introduction to the Study of the History of Language. By H. A. Strong, W. S. Logeman, and B. I. Wheeler. Longmans. 1891.

PAUL'S 'Principien,' like other great books, has had its friends and its enemies. Its friends

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in this country and in England have urged that it be translated and condensed for the use of English-speaking people. A translation by Dr. H. A. Strong, Professor of Latin in University College, Liverpool, appeared some years ago and has lately passed into a second edition; and now Prof. Strong has associated himself with others and brought out nearly as large a volume, in which Paul's work is recast. The second member of the firm of Strong, Logeman, Wheeler & Co. is a graduate of Utrecht University, and is now head-master in a Cheshire school; Prof. Wheeler of Cornell needs no introduction; the silent partner is Mr. R. H. Case, B.A., whose fitness for the task of preliminary critic of the work consisted in his "highly cultured mind, well versed in English and its literature, but new to a subject like this." It would seem that the bulk of the work of recasting Paul's ideas fell to Prof. Strong and Mr. Logeman, and upon them must rest the weight of criticism. Prof. Wheeler's share in the book (beyond some odd notes and references) is probably limited to the final chapter, "On the Standard Language," and this is one of the best pieces of work in the book. It is refreshing to find in the English editors a modest but dignified spirit and a willingness to learn from authorities. The only pity is that there is little ability shown in distinguishing the real from the supposed authority. Such a book as Sweet's 'History of English Sounds' is referred to but once, while the storehouse from which our authors have drawn their knowledge of English phonology is part first of Skeat's 'Principles of English Etymology,' a dilettante book, scientific in form, but as far behind the present state of philology as it is in advance of such books as Earle's.

The volume before us has not escaped the dangers of collaboration. The same point is treated in various places (*cf.* what is said of *of mine*, pp. 148, 153, 215), and at times differently. The North English idiom "will"="probably is" is stamped a Scotticism on page 261; but the writer of chapters 18 and 20 is fond of it (bottom p. 312, middle p. 358, etc.). The German word *Umlaut* had been used unchallenged as far along as page 190; but the writer of page 199 feels it necessary to excuse its use. In the preface, Mr. Logeman thanks Prof. Strong for correcting his un-English English, and so we may perhaps suppose Prof. Strong did not revise pages 27, 48, 54, 112, 121, 313, where we read: "Whoever hears the sounds of which the word is composed spoken cannot, etc.," "*spoke* that the, etc.," "dependent sentences may become *by us* independent"; but it will hardly be fair to hold Mr. Logeman responsible for "preventative," p. 287, or such translations as "the heads of the conspiracy were slain and their heads cut off," p. 241, "movement or position-picture" for *Bewegungsgefühl*, p. 36, or "Ur-Norse," p. 200.

In their preface the authors frankly state the nature of their book. They have followed Paul closely in the number, order, and subject of the chapters, and even in "the order in which the various points in each chapter are discussed." But as "Paul very frequently follows the German manner of exposition, first giving us the statement of abstract principles and then illustrative examples," "the order of the argument has sometimes been inverted" Paul's German illustrations have been dropped, and "everything has been illustrated from English wherever possible, and much also from French." Paul's introduction has been omitted entirely, as also "some minor points, . . . not because they were thought unimportant, but generally because they could not be so well illustrated from English, and it was felt desirable to economize space for a full discussion of everything of which English does furnish illustration."

The work has been unevenly done: some chapters (*e. g.*, 10, 16) are good samples of what the writers aimed at; others are diffuse (*cf.* 6), and chapter 17 (in which Paul's eight pages are expanded to 17) is but a string of cases with but little attempt at order or statement of causes, while many chapters show caprice in omission and addition, with illustrations now good and apt, now betraying inexcusable ignorance. A sample (not quite up to the average) of the manner in which the work has been done may be seen in the closing portion of chapter 18. In reading Paul's paragraph beginning "Zuweilen" (p. 273), a glance at the opening words of the preceding paragraph will show the relation of the two. In the English book Paul's first paragraph has been mangled, while the wording of the second presupposes what has been left out of the first. The second paragraph (p. 312) reads: "Sometimes, as in the rhetorical figure which we call aposiopesis, the psychological predicate as well is taken from the situation," etc., which is an attempt to translate: "Zuweilen ist auch das psychologische Prädikat aus der Situation zu entnehmen," etc. Paul concludes the second paragraph with: "Hierher gehören Ausdrücke der Verwunderung oder Entrüstung oder des Bedauerns, die nur den Gegenstand angeben, über den Man sich verwundert oder entrüstet oder den Man bedauert. Das Prädikat wird dabei hauptsächlich durch den Gefühlston angedeutet," and adds the examples. For this the English book gives us only examples, strung together in this wise: "Again, we find such expressions as . . . Again, take such expressions as . . . ; and again, exclamations such as . . . Under this head will come the so-called Infinitive of Exclamation in Latin. . . . This use is also very common in French; as . . ." Paul closes the chapter with a paragraph treating clearly and fully of "isolierte Sätze, die die Form des abhängigen Satzes haben," using spaced letters to indicate the subject of the paragraph. The English book leaves out an important part of the paragraph, and needlessly breaks up the remainder into two paragraphs, the first of which is, omitting examples, "Similarly, dependent sentences may become by us [*sic*] independent; as, . . . This use is similar in Anglo-Saxon"; and the second, "It is similar when conditional sentences are used as threats, as . . . or when such are set down [*sic*] and left uncompleted; as, . . . French is full of parallels: . . . [five French to two English examples] These sentences with *that* [there are none in the preceding sixteen lines of the paragraph and but one in the paragraph before; but there were plenty in Paul's book!] are originally predicates; or, speaking from a grammatical point of view, objects. . . ."

The general suppression of examples drawn from German, together with the lavish use of French, Latin, and Greek illustrations, is not easy to understand; especially as a knowledge of German is taken for granted (p. 48). Now and then a German example (*Wo wollen Sie hin?* p. 308) is used, in evident ignorance of the fact that early English supplies plenty of such cases. The literal translation of foreign examples is carried to a ridiculous extent, for example (p. 305): "There were some of whom neither Senate boast nor the Emperor could"; "What I there dreaming cheered at and suffered must waking now experience"; (p. 334) "*der tieffühlendste Geist*, 'Deepfeelingest ghost,' *i. e.*, 'spirit'"; (p. 357) "*totum hoc philosophari*, 'all this to philosophise.'"

What has been added to the book is of little note, and is generally second-hand. There is an attempt made (p. 276) to trace the English construction "he was talked of," "an outrage confessed to," to a Celtic source! On page 94 is an excursus (from Alinkvest) on the Swedish accent, with a bibliography. At page 220 there is a long extract from the Oxford Dictionary, excused on the ground of "the unavoidably high cost of the work, which places it beyond the reach of the ordinary student." One-third of the references in the book are to Skeat, Mätzner, and Murray, who are backed by such authorities as Abbott, Hodgson, Mason, and Earle. In Latin, Roby and Zumpt are the standbys, and in general philology Byrne, Müller, Peile, Sayce, etc. As our authors betray no acquaintance with the standard German writers (other than a few that are readily available in English translations), we need not be surprised that they have not come across special treatises like Storch's 'Angls. Nominalcomposita' (Trübner, 1886); and inform us (p. 317) that the list of compounds in Morris's 'Historical Outlines' is about the best thing in that line. But we should have expected the writer of the chapter "On Mixture in Language" to have availed himself of the rich material in Prof. Elliott's and Dr. Learned's articles on speech mixture in French and German settlements of this country. Though there is a reference on page 131 to Heyne's 'Beowulf,' the writer of the chapter is not sufficiently acquainted with the book to know that the philologian does not spell his name as the poet did. *Cf.* also "Stratman" (p. 195).

But the chief aim of the writers of this book is to furnish English illustrations of the principles stated, and it is to their fitness for this task that we should direct special attention. The point of view of one of the writers may be learned from his regarding everything before Chaucer as "Anglo-Saxon" (pp. 127, 135). The examples are almost all from the three or four dictionaries and manuals mentioned above, and most of them are happy. There is much careful copying from Skeat (mistakes and all, *cf.* the impossible *scólu*, p. 233), but now and then there is a slip, as when that puzzling M. E. letter was taken for a *z* ("*saztlen*," p. 145). The writer of chapter 10 knows something about the fortunes of O. E. *g* in M. E. (p. 172); but the writer of chapter 21 knows no more than Skeat betrays in §338 P. E. E., and supposes the rule to be *g*>*w* between vowels (p. 378), and that genitive and dative singular of *day* had *w* (p. 379)! There are many illustrations of the truth of the proverb about the danger of having a little knowledge. The writer of chapter 13, speaking of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, informs (p. 222) his modern readers that *ti* in *tion* was pronounced *tea;* whereas words borrowed as early as O. E. times show this *t* already changed to *ts*, and Chaucer's spelling proves that it had passed on to *s* in his day. It is well to know that *n* often assimilates to following labials and gutturals, but it will not do to declare it a general law (p. 183); many still use front *n* in perfectly unstudied speech in *income, in Paris*, etc. It is tempting to apply the principle *a nadder*>*an adder*, to "*orange*, derived from the Persian *nâranj*" (p. 283); but when was English *orange* spelled *norange?* And how about the *n*-less forms of the word in Italian, French, etc.? On page 85 we are told that *more* is derived from *mo* by analogy to comparatives in *-er!* On page 193 we read of

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"the misspelt word *whole*." The *w*, though not in the O. E. form or pronounced to-day, has an historical value, having once been sounded (*cf.* Sweet, H. E. S.). In *that there mountain*, *this here book*, the *there* and *here* are not "pleonastic adjectival adverbs" (p. 361), but strengthening modifiers of the preceding demonstratives, the use having begun with substantives (that, there!). *Perfectest*, *chiefest*, etc. (p. 154), are not cases of contamination; the positive has simply acquired a broader sense, which admits of comparison. So of the Scotch "better" = "well." And *lonelier* does not mean "more alone," but "more conscious of being alone." But there is (p. 148) contamination of a kind not intended in "Occasionally, a contamination results from the confusion of the active and passive constructions; *e. g*, *I care na by how few may see*." Is it not imposing a good deal on Burns's good nature to charge him with mixing active and passive in this way in carefully prepared verse? *I care na by* is a common Scotticism for *I don't care (about it)*; *cf.* Murray. On page 38 things get pretty well inverted, for there *bird* is regarded as the normal form, of which "the form *brid*, found in Chaucer," is derived by metathesis.

It would be wearisome to carry this further; enough has been pointed out to show that our guides are blind guides, at least as far as English is concerned. In other departments it is nearly the same, as when we are told (p. 388) that German words adopted by Romance languages have been even more violently transformed—who in the French *tape*, *taper*, would recognize the German *zapfen;* in the Italian *toppo*, the German *Zopf*, etc., etc.? the writer actually supposing that the Romance languages borrowed the words with H. G. shifting, and then "violently transformed" them into their original Germanic forms. After this it hardly seems necessary to point out misprints and the like: p. 57, *reputation* for *refutation;* p. 144, *Etymological Dict.* for *Principles of Eng. Etymology;* middle of p. 166, *when* for *what;* p. 338, *first-class;* p. 349, *Dutch* for *German;* p. 367, *front nasal* for *back nasal;* p. 391, *Frauleins*.

It had been hoped that when Paul's book was remodelled for the use of English-speaking students, it would be put into what the Germans call a more *übersichtlich* shape. The book we have received has not only disappointed the hope, but is in this respect not even as good as the original. The outlines of the chapters and the spacing of the chief words in each paragraph have been dropped, and thus it is often difficult to tell what is the bearing of a new paragraph until one has read it through. Altogether, the book is a disappointment: the scholars who undertook it did not have a clear idea of what was wanted, and were not prepared for their task. The want is still to be filled, and, in the meantime, instructors will continue to use the original book, in the German or the English edition.

Letters of John Keats to His Family and Friends. Edited by Sidney Colvin. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

In this volume Mr. Sidney Colvin has attempted to supply the want of a "separate and convenient edition" of the familiar letters of John Keats, and he claims for it that it is "the only one in which the true text . . . is given consecutively and in proper order." The matter is not new—it has all, or nearly all, been printed before—but all the available letters of Keats, with the exception of the love-letters to Fanny Brawne, are here brought together in a handy form, clearly printed, and supplied with strictly necessary notes.

Mr. Colvin, with a pardonable enthusiasm for his subject, considers these letters, at their best, as "among the most beautiful in our language," and says of Keats that he is "one of those poets whose genius makes itself felt in prose writing almost as decisively as in verse." With this dictum we must entirely disagree. If Keats were to be judged by his correspondence alone, without the scraps of verse which it contains and which, printed in full where they occur, seem the more wonderful from the contrast with their surroundings, he would appear, not as a great artist, self-controlled and conscious of power, but as a whimsical, petulant, ambitious boy, full of generous impulses and noble intentions, but ill-regulated and self-conscious in the extreme. His style, which Mr. Colvin compares to that of the prose passages of Shakspere is often as bad as a prose style could well be. Here and there a passage has a fine Elizabethan ring, but for the most part it is confused, lumbering, and full of affectations. His speculations on life, philosophy, and criticism are of that stage of the intellect when one is continually making new discoveries of wonderful and profound things which every one has always known. His views of politics and religion were taken at second hand from his friends, and he shows no evidence of any independent thinking on these subjects. The ferocity of the criticism with which his earlier poems were received was due as much to political as to literary intolerance, and it is curious to see on what slender grounds he adopted those opinions which excited such bitter opposition. He was thrown into the society of Hunt and Haydon and other disappointed men, haters of the society in which they found themselves, and convinced that "something was rotten in the state of Denmark" because they were not rated by the world at their own valuation; and, with the enthusiastic admiration of youth for the showy qualities of his inferiors, adopted their ideas and loyally championed their cause to his own hurt. He was a free-thinker and a radical by accident and association rather than from serious thought, but he suffered for his chance-held opinions as if they were the acquired convictions of a lifetime.

There is a type of artist, of which, among painters, Turner is one of the best known, which combines a wonderful special aptitude—an undoubted genius—with a mind in other ways quite ordinary. We do not mean that Keats's mind was not of a higher type, by nature, than Turner's, but it was the mind of a boy, undisciplined and chaotic. He died too young to have formed any definite character, and was but beginning to be a man when the end came; but genius had wrought its miracle—the special aptitude had done its work—and a half-dozen masterpieces remained. How instinctively and unconsciously they were produced, with how little self-knowledge or self-criticism, a hundred passages show. Composition was always "a fever" with Keats, and nearly at the last he could say of the "Ode to Psyche": "The following Poem—the last I have written—is the first and the only one with which I have taken even moderate pains. I have for the most part dash'd off my lines in a hurry." This after the "Eve of St. Agnes," and "Isabella," and the first form of "Hyperion"! Of "Lamia" he says: "I have great hopes of success, because I make use of my Judgment more deliberately than I have yet done"; yet his judgment is of so little service that he picks out as "a good sample," for his publisher, precisely the bit of most doubtful taste in the whole poem, the description of the banquet hall, with its

> "Fresh carved cedar mimicking a glade
> Of palm and plantain."

Nor do his remarks upon the poetry of others show more critical power, whether he speculates on "Wordsworth's genius and as a help, *in the manner of gold being the meridian Line* of worldly wealth, how he differs from Milton. . . . And whether Wordsworth has in truth epic passion, and martyrs himself to the human heart, the main region of his song," or gravely quotes from "Twelfth Night" *Maria's* "There is no Christian that means to be saved by believing rightly, can ever believe such impossible passages of grossness," as an argument for Shakspere's infidelity.

An extreme instance of Keats's affectation is the following from letter xxxi, to Benjamin Bailey:

> "One saying of yours I shall never forget—you may not recollect it—it being perhaps said when you were looking on the Surface and seeming of Humanity alone, without a thought of the past or the future—or the deeps of good and evil—you were at that moment estranged from speculation, and I think you have arguments for the Man who would utter it to you—this is a formidable preface for a simple thing—merely you said, '*Why should woman suffer?*' Aye, why should she? 'By heavens, I'd coin my very Soul, and drop my Blood for Drachmas!' These things are, and he, who feels how incompetent the most skyey Knight-errantry is to heal this bruised fairness, is like a sensitive leaf on the hot hand of thought."

And this, apropos of nothing; what goes before and what follows relating to quite other subjects!

As to his passages of philosophizing on life, they are too long to quote and too confused to be understood. In all things he is a creature of whim and mood, writing a really noble and poetical discourse in favor of idleness and passive receptivity (p. 74), and, within two months, exclaiming, "*I find earlier days are gone by*—I find that I can have no enjoyment in the world but continual drinking of knowledge"; exalting his friends and then suspecting them; loving and despising women; thirsting for fame and social success, yet thinking he loathed "the poisonous suffrage of the public"; a radical in politics, yet extremely aristocratic in temper; full of contempt for French literature, which he did not know, and for Americans, whom he had never met, yet hating Englishmen "because they were the only men he knew." As he says of himself in a letter to Shelley written but a few months before his death, his mind "was like a pack of scattered cards." He had begun to gather them together and sort them; his later letters show the beginning of the conscious, self-restrained artist who could work and wait. In his immature youth he had shown many fine qualities; he began to be master of them and of himself. It was too late; the "brief candle" had burned itself out.

Valuable in themselves, then, as literature, in spite of some noble and oft-quoted passages, these letters are not. Neither do they possess the interest of a picture of the times. Keats's life was too remote, his interests too personal, his friends too unimportant, for such interest. Nor do they explain to us the nature of his genius—rather they render it more inexplicable than ever. How this half-educated young medical student, who dropped his profession at twenty to take up that of letters, and died at twenty-five believing that his "name was writ in water," came to do, in that short interval, work which has made him a name and a power in literature, is a question which his correspondence leaves unsolved. Yet, as it gives us the

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thoughts and the moods and the feelings, from day to day, of the man who achieved this—as it tells us what suggested this or that piece of perfect verse and in what circumstances it was composed—as it gives us the pathetic story of that short life, this edition of it will be welcome to lovers of poetry, and the editor has deserved their thanks. These thanks would, however, be warmer if he had provided an index, or at least a less meagre table of contents, to lessen the labor of consulting it. To ask this were surely not to ask too much of a man of the reputation of Mr. Colvin.

Sir John Franklin and the Northwest Passage. By Capt. Albert Hastings Markham, R.N., A.D.C. [The World's Great Explorers]. London: George Philip & Son. 1891. 8vo, pp. xii, 324, maps and ills.

Sir John Franklin, the youngest son of a family comprising four boys and six girls, the children of Willingham and Hannah Franklin, was born at Spilsby, in Lincolnshire, April 16, 1786. He first went to a preparatory school at St. Ives, and at the age of twelve was entered as a scholar at the South Grammar School. This celebrated school, founded in 1552, counts several distinguished names among its graduates, among whom, besides the subject of this notice, may be instanced Alfred Tennyson and Hobart Pasha.

Whatever the cause, it soon became evident to his parents that the boy was determined to become a sailor, and, as they had other intentions for him, in the hope of changing his resolution they allowed him to ship on a small merchantman for a trip to Lisbon and back. The effect of this voyage was quite the reverse of what his friends intended, for young Franklin returned more than ever charmed with the novelty of a sailor's life and bent on adopting the sea as a profession. Nothing would satisfy him but service on one of his Majesty's ships. Yielding to his earnest entreaties, his friends finally succeeded in obtaining for him an appointment as a first-class volunteer on the *Polyphemus*, sixty-four guns, which he joined on the 9th of March, 1800. August 1, Capt. John Lawford was appointed to command her, and she went immediately into active service, forming one of the fleet under Nelson which in April, 1801, made the celebrated attack on Copenhagen, characterized by Nelson as his "most hard-fought battle." Returning to England, Franklin was appointed as a midshipman on the *Investigator*, commanded by Matthew Flinders, a relative of his and one of the most distinguished naval surveyors of those days.

The object of the voyage upon which the *Investigator* was ordered was the completion of the surveys of the coast of Australia, on which Flinders had been already several years engaged with great energy and success. A year after their arrival at Sydney was devoted to this work under great hardships. The vessel proved to be in a very rotten condition, and, on her return to Port Jackson, was condemned as unfit for further service; while, owing to the want of fresh provisions, scurvy played havoc with the crew. Flinders, Franklin, and twenty others embarked on the armed vessel *Porpoise* to return to England, Franklin being entered on her books July 21, 1803, as master's mate. The training in surveying work and in devising practical expedients to meet unusual contingencies, which Franklin must have had under so eminent an officer as his commander, was no doubt of the greatest value to him in his subsequent career.

The unfortunate *Porpoise*, in company with the merchantmen *Cato* and *Bridgewater*, entered Torres Strait, where, six days after their departure, the two former were totally wrecked on an unknown reef, while their convoy, after waiting aimlessly for twenty-four hours in the vicinity, and making no attempt at rescue, finally abandoned them, and on her arrival at Bombay reported the total loss of the two ships with all hands! The survivors of the wreck formed an encampment on the sandbank, and Flinders, in a six-oared cutter, made the perilous voyage of 750 miles to Sydney for assistance. This was fortunately secured, and Franklin was taken aboard the ship *Rolla*, bound for Canton, where he joined the *Earl Camden*, one of a fleet of sixteen armed Indiamen bound for England under the command of Commodore Nathaniel Dance of the East India Company's service. In the Straits of Malacca the fleet was engaged by Admiral Linois of the French navy with a squadron of five naval vessels, but the Englishmen gave a good account of themselves. The French were repulsed and even chased for two hours; then the Commodore recalled his vessels and proceeded homeward without further molestation.

In August, 1804, Franklin was appointed to the *Bellerophon*, and on the 21st of October, 1805, participated as signal midshipman in the battle of Trafalgar, from which he escaped unscathed. After an interval of very ordinary service, he took part in the British operations against New Orleans, and on the eventful 8th of January, 1815, when Jackson defeated the invaders (a fact Capt. Markham forgets to mention), Franklin was officially commended for his gallant exertions.

In 1818, Franklin, now a lieutenant of ten years' standing, was appointed second in command of an expedition toward the North Pole, on the ship *Dorothea* and the brig *Trent*. The senior commanding officer was Lieut. David Buchan, who had already distinguished himself as an hydrographer on the Newfoundland coast. This was the initiation of Franklin into the Arctic service. A gallant but futile attempt was made to penetrate the Spitzbergen floes, and, with both vessels more or less damaged, the expedition was obliged to return to England, with only negative results. For Franklin, however, the voyage bore further fruit. A sonnet on the expedition, written by a poetical young lady, Miss Eleanor Anne Porden, led to her introduction to the gallant officer, to whom some years later she was united in marriage.

After the return of Buchan, the Government determined to send an expedition for Arctic discovery into the archipelago, then an unknown wilderness, north of North America. To coöperate with this expedition, commanded by Lieut. Parry, a land party, to approach the coast from the interior of the Hudson Bay region, was agreed upon. This land party was commanded by Franklin, with John Richardson as surgeon, and their sufferings and geographical discoveries are described in the well-known volume entitled 'Narrative of a Journey to the Polar Sea.' Space forbids us to dwell on details, and the reader may be referred to the well-merited eulogies assembled by Capt. Markham. In the autumn of 1822 Franklin arrived in England, was promoted to the rank of captain, and unanimously elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. On the 19th of August, in the following year, he married, and the union was blessed, June 3, 1824, by the birth of a daughter; but Mrs. Franklin's health from this time gradually declined. It was only too apparent, when Franklin started on his next expedition, that her tenure of life would be but short.

Though Parry thus far had failed to find the Northwest Passage which was the object of his search, he was fully convinced of its existence, and, in accordance with that belief, a second double expedition was planned. The command of the land party which should survey the northern border of the continent was confided to Franklin, with whom Richardson and Back were again associated. They left England in February, 1825, and six days later Mrs. Franklin breathed her last, passing away at the early age of twenty-nine. By the 18th of August, 1826, Franklin had traced the shore line nearly 400 miles westward from the mouth of the Mackenzie River, and was then obliged to return. After additional researches in other directions, he arrived in England, September 26, 1827, having been absent nearly three years. The geographical results included the discovery and delineation of over 1,000 miles of coast, and the scientific observations of all sorts were of the highest importance. Honors were showered upon the successful explorer. He was knighted on the 29th of April, 1829, and received the honorary degree of D.C.L. from the University of Oxford, while medals and congratulations abounded. On November 5, 1828, Franklin married Jane, second daughter of John Griffin, Esq., of Bedford Place.

After this, Franklin was engaged as senior naval officer in Greece, a post involving much administrative duty ashore. In 1836 he was appointed to the Lieutenant-Governorship of Van Diemen's Land (now better known as Tasmania), where the beneficent results of his rule are well remembered. His popularity aroused jealousies which finally led to his retirement from the post, to the great regret of the better element in the colony.

About the time of his return to England, an energetic effort on the part of Sir John Barrow and other geographers led to the fitting out of a last expedition in search of the Northwest Passage. Although nearly sixty years of age, Franklin eagerly sought the command, which was his for the asking. Full of hope and enthusiasm, he sailed on the 19th of May, 1845. On the 26th of July, the vessels were seen for the last time by civilized man, being sighted by a whaler from Hull, in Melville Bay. Opposed by the ice, the expedition wintered in 1845–'46, at Beechey Island. The following summer they were beset in the pack-ice in Peel Strait, west of the northern part of Boothia Felix, and there remained all winter. In the spring an exploring party was sent out, commanded by Lieut. Graham Gore, which traced the remaining waterway from the known to the previously unknown. Returning with the geographical fact of a Northwest Passage fully determined, they were barely able to announce the news to their chief, who was then seriously ill, and who died June 11, 1847, with the news of the successful result of the enterprise ringing in his ears. His grave no man has seen, nor does any one know where he was laid; though doubtless, despite the ice, he had a sailor's burial.

With this brief summary of the most remarkable life among Arctic explorers, we must rest. For the details and associated facts and the story of the search, the reader should turn to Capt. Markham's excellent volume, where all is told in straightforward, manly fashion, though with but little art. The book is well printed and has a good index.

The Origin of Property in Land. By Fustel de Coulanges. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

This essay, at least under its present title, seems inappropriately published in book form.

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It was originally a critical article in the *Revue des Questions Historiques*, and, in spite of the introductory chapter on the English manor by Prof. Ashley of Toronto, we cannot feel that it should have been offered to the public in another shape. It is not an examination of the origin of property in land, but a criticism of certain theories of common ownership of land; a criticism, too, that can be appreciated only by scholars, for it depends upon the construction that should be given to obscure allusions and words of doubtful meaning occurring in the earliest records of our race. For the most part, it is impossible to judge of the value of such criticism without examining these records; and, as this is impossible for general readers, it is fairer not to invite them to listen to the controversy.

Prof. Ashley's introduction is of a more popular character. He disbelieves in the existence of the free village community of Teutons in England, and seems inclined to accept Seebohm's theory as to the Roman origin of the manor. But it is quite possible, as Mr. Gomme has recently shown, to reject both views, and to recognize the existence of a servile population attached to the land, antedating the Roman, possibly even the Celtic, occupation of Britain. The theory of the mark as a tract of land held in common by the free inhabitants of a village must be abandoned unless new evidence is discovered, and, if this theory goes, it is hardly necessary to say that a most cherished grievance of the modern land-reformers goes with it. In other words, the period of degradation from which the tillers of the soil have gradually emerged, was never preceded by a golden age of freedom.

There are some parts of M. de Coulanges's article that are of a nature to be appreciated by themselves. His examination of the well-known passages from Cæsar and Tacitus, upon which such an imposing fabric of theory has been constructed, is, as to certain points, conclusive. Thus, the statement by Tacitus as to the cultivation of the land by the *familia* of the Germans is undeniably inconsistent with the theory of tillage by free owners, and it has been too hastily assumed that *ager* is to be translated by "common lands." So it is significant that the word *mark* not only is late in appearing, but seems to be used in the sense of boundary when it does occur. Altogether, the attack upon Maurer is a very brilliant piece of work; but as those who have undertaken to verify Coulanges's references in his 'Cité Antique' have found him not always accurate, it is well not to decide too hastily upon his conclusions. At all events, the article is a challenge to the followers of Maurer which they cannot afford to ignore.

It is but small game that M. de Coulanges runs down in his criticism of MM. Viollet and de Laveleye. The former of these writers endeavors to establish the existence of community of property in land by poetical quotations from Plato and Virgil and Tibullus, referring to a period when Saturn reigned and wars were yet unknown. The reference to such passages as authoritative is sufficient to discredit a writer even when he descends to historic times. As to M. de Laveleye, his method, not to say his mind, is so essentially superficial that it is almost cruel to subject his writings to any of the tests of scholarship. Yet, after all, M. de Coulanges does not show that there was not a period when land was owned in common. He draws a distinction between the ownership of the family and that of the community; but if he admits the one, he establishes a certain probability of the other. At the same time we must allow the force of his contention that "property may be a primordial fact, contemporaneous with the earliest cultivation of the soil, natural to man, produced by an instinctive recognition of his interests, and closely bound up with the primitive constitution of the family." His criticism deserves the careful examination of all who have access to the authorities to whom he refers.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America. 1773–1783. Vol. IX. Nos. 850-919. London: B. F. Stevens.

To read the Stevens manuscripts is a labor of Sisyphus. In the eighth volume we seemed to have rolled this voluminous correspondence over rocks and bogs as far uphill as the year 1778; and here, with the ninth, we are down in 1775 again. But this volume is easier reading than some of its predecessors. It contains many letters of Beaumarchais, and that arch-conspirator was a far more amusing person than Wentworth, and Hynson, and Lupton, and Dr. Bancroft; and his morals were far more savory than theirs. He was not betraying anybody, and his lies were not blacker but only more picturesque than those which they sold week by week to their employers.

The most entertaining thing in this volume is Beaumarchais's answer to Dr. Barbeu-Dubourg. The letter was published so many years ago by Loménie that it may well be forgotten by this time. Dubourg was a friend of Dr. Franklin, and had taken, from an early date, a great interest in the cause of the American colonists. When he learned that the French ministers had intrusted to Beaumarchais the whole management of commercial relations with the insurgents, he was shocked and disappointed. He immediately wrote to the Count of Vergennes (July 13, 1776):

"I have seen M. de Beaumarchais this morning, and, seeing myself expressly authorized by you, I have willingly conferred with him without reserve. Everybody knows his wit, his talents, and no one does more justice than I to his honesty, his discretion, his zeal for all that is great and good; I believe him one of the best fitted men in the world for political negotiations, but perhaps at the same time one of those least fitted for mercantile transactions. He loves display, they say that he keeps women, he has the reputation of a spendthrift, and there is no merchant nor manufacturer in France that has not this idea of him, and that would not hesitate much before having any commercial business with him whatsoever" . . . (881).

This letter was shown by the Count to Beaumarchais, and brought forth the following answer:

"Tuesday, 16th July, 1776.

"Until the Count of Vergennes showed me your letter, Sir, it was impossible for me to seize the true meaning of that with which you have honored me. This gentleman *who will not and cannot undertake anything with me*, was something inexplicable. I now understand very well that you wanted to take time to write to the Minister about me; but to receive true ideas from him, was it quite necessary to present him with false ones? Indeed, what difference does it make in our business if I am a man widely known, fond of display, and who keeps women, &c.?

"The women that I have kept for the last twenty years, Sir, are your very humble servants. They were five, four sisters and a niece of my own. Within three years two of these kept women have died, to my great regret. I now keep only three, two sisters and my niece, which is yet tolerably extravagant for a private person like myself. But what would you have thought, if, better acquainted with me, you had known that I pushed my scandalous conduct so far as to keep men too? —two nephews, very young and rather good-looking, and even the too unhappy father who brought into the world so scandalous a keeper. As for my display, it's much worse yet. For three years, thinking laces and embroidered clothes too mean for my vanity, have I not affected the pride of having my wrists ever adorned with the finest plain muslin? The most splendid black cloth is not too fine for me; sometimes even I have been seen to push my dandyism so far as silk, in very hot weather. But I beg you, Sir, not to go and write these things to the Count of Vergennes; you would end by ruining me entirely in his mind.

"You had your reasons for writing him evil of me, although you do not know me; I have mine not to take offence at it, although I have the honor of knowing you.

"You are, Sir, an honest man, so enflamed with the desire to do a great good that you thought you might allow yourself a little evil to accomplish it.

"This morality is not exactly that of the Gospels, but I have known many people to make up their minds to it. It is even in this way that, to effect the conversion of the Pagans, the Fathers of the Church sometimes allowed themselves doubtful quotations, holy calumnies, which among themselves they called pious frauds.

"Let us stop jesting. I am not put out, because Monsieur de Vergennes is not a small man and I abide by his answer. Let those of whom I ask advances in business mistrust me; I consent. But let those who are animated with true zeal for the common friends who are concerned, look twice before they part company with an honorable man who offers to render all the services and to make all the advances useful to these same friends. Do you understand me now, Sir?

"I shall have the honor to see you this afternoon early enough to find you still together.

"I have that of being, with the highest consideration, Sir,

"Your very humble and very obedient servant, well known to you by the name of

"RODERIGUE HORTALEZ ET COMPIE." (882.)

We have thus seen Beaumarchais engaged in controversy. Let us now contemplate him furnishing the Minister with news. We shall marvel at the kind of information on which governments had to act in the last century:

"PARIS, 25th September, 1776.

"MONSIEUR LE COMTE:

"I am more unfortunate than Cassandra, whose prophecies no one believed; because she always announced misfortunes. As for me, I announce only good things, and they say that I realize the flights of my heated imagination. I predicted that the Americans would be conquerors, and soon delivered from the English; and people smiled at my security. I predicted that if there were an action at New York and the loss were even equal on both sides, the difference of situation would multiply it a hundred fold for the English; and they shook their heads at my calculation. I said that General Burgoigne, on bad terms with Carleton, could not pass the lakes for more than four months, and they doubted my prediction.

"Let us, then, support our conjectures by some bits of news recently arrived.

"NANTZ, 22d September.

"By a ship arrived day before yesterday, and come in 26 days from Nantucket in the island of Rodes, we have received the important news:

"(1.) That the Congress is still sitting at Philadelphia and does not think of leaving there.

"(2.) That the Americans declared their independence on the 4th of July, and have not changed their minds since. . . .

"(5.) That the Americans have seized the two important fortresses of Crown Point and Ticonderoga; that they there await Gen. Burgoigne, who is master of Montreal, but who cannot yet push on his attack because he is in need of boats to cross the lakes, which will freeze while they are building.

"(6.) That on the 12th or 13th of August a very bloody engagement took place at New York between the two parties, of which the following is the detailed account: Gen. Howe being encamped on Staten Island in sight of His Excellency Gen. Washington, who was on Long Island, and having resolved to attack Gen. Washington, feigned to disembark his troops on one side of the island, and disembarked the greater part of them on another. These men seized a rising ground, and surrounded the American army. After the two contestants had thus fought for a very long time, the American generals perceived that their troops would suffer terribly in this sort of blockade, unless they made a vigorous manœu-

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vre which should give them back the advantage of position. Immediately they encouraged their soldiers to throw themselves on the English, sword in hand, and to make way through their army; which they did with terrible courage, and, having broken through the troops that surrounded them, attacked them in the rear, put them to rout, and forced them to retire precipitately to their vessels. The loss is about equal on both sides, and amounts to eleven thousand men, both English and Americans. But the latter have taken prisoner three generals, fifteen officers of rank, several officers of artillery, and a great number of others, and many English soldiers." . . . (898).

We have had occasion to speak before of the carelessness sometimes shown in translating these letters. It appears more in occasional blunders of a rather serious character than in the ordinary course of translation, which is reasonably good. Thus we have in this volume (881) "M^es de Lauraguais et Le Roy," rendered "M. de Lauraguais and the King," when a moment's thought should have warned the translator that His Most Christian Majesty would hardly be brought into a letter to one of his ministers at the tail of a subject in that way, and a second thought might have told him that the article in front of the King's name is not usually capitalized. Monsieur Le Roy is, in fact, as common a name in France as Mr. King is with us. We should like also to know the translator's warrant for rendering "officiers majors" as "commissioned officers" (898).

Lewis Cass. By Andrew C. McLaughlin, Assistant Professor of History in the University of Michigan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 16mo, pp. ix, 357.

In the "American Statesmen Series" the life of Lewis Cass could not well be omitted, for he was a figure of undeniable prominence among the politicians of the generation preceding the civil war. Yet it is doubtful if the intrinsic interest of his public career makes a volume in excess of three hundred pages a memorial proportioned to the permanent place he will occupy in our history. A full article in a biographical encyclopædia would afford room for a sketch which should do justice to his character and services to the country; but in so busy a time as this, one feels a little overtaxed in reading a volume in which it does not appear that in any important juncture Cass's influence was a dominant one.

By far the most attractive and the most fruitful part of his life was the earlier period when, as Colonel in the War of 1812, and as Governor of the Territory of Michigan, he showed a manly vigor and an intelligent initiative in affairs that warranted the high reputation which he brought into national politics when he entered the Cabinet of Jackson in 1831. His explorations in the wilderness of the Northwest, and his wise and courageous dealings with the Indian tribes, had a tinge of the romantic and adventurous which will always make an attractive chapter in the history of advancing civilization on the continent. It is not improbable that, a few generations hence, he will be better known as an administrator and explorer of the frontier than as Cabinet Minister, Senator, or diplomat. A place beside Champlain and Marquette would not be an ignoble one in our annals, even if it be not that to which Cass and his closest circle of friends thought him entitled.

In spite of all ingenious efforts to magnify the importance of his national career, Cass must remain one of that unhappy class of Northern politicians who were not able to forecast the future of the country, and who were chained, by fetters which they could not break, to a cause inevitably doomed by the advancing enlightenment and awakening conscience of the age. They were at war with manifest destiny, and no matter how much learning or kind-heartedness or honesty they had, they must bear the burden of having sought to stop the moral progress of their time, and to defeat the cause of free labor and free thought when the States and communities of which they were the official representatives were the most brilliant examples of the power and value of freedom. Posterity will have deaf ears when it is argued that they were not blinded by ambition and narrow partisanship. Prof. McLaughlin's own sympathies are so strongly with the cause that triumphed that, in reading his pages, one feels his apologies and his glosses to be labored. The sympathy he feels for a man of considerable ability, of honorable and successful private life, of kindly and hospitable nature, disarms his criticism, and he glides, perhaps unconsciously, into the rôle of the advocate pleading for a favorable judgment.

The publisher's and printer's work is, as usual, excellently well done, and the introduction of a new form of spring back makes a handy volume which it is a comfort to hold and to read.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bascom, Prof. John. The New Theology. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Bigelow, Lieut. John, jr. The Principles of Strategy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $7.50.
Cawein, Madison. Days and Dreams. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.

Have just published:

NATURE STUDY

For the Common Schools. By WILBUR S. JACKMAN of the Cook Co. Normal School, Chicago. 12mo, pp. 444. Teachers' price, $1.20; by mail, $1.30.

A series of questions for pupils and suggestions for teachers on the scientific side of every day phenomena.

LIFE OF

Jane Welsh Carlyle.

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